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THE
CRITICAL REVIEW;

OR

Annals of Literature,

EXTENDED AND IMPROVED.

BY

A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

A NEW ARRANGEMENT.

Ser. 21
VOLUME the FIRST.

74 - Apr. 1791
— NOTHING EXTENUATE,
NOR SET DOWN AUGHT IN MALICE.

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L O N D O N,

PRINTED FOR A. HAMILTON, FALCON-COURT, -FLEETSTEERT.

1791.



A D V E R T I S E M E N T.

THIS Journal has now lived half the life of man; and of its first Conductors none remain. In this interval, various alterations in situation and circumstances must have influenced our conduct; but the first plan was so wise and judicious, that we have scarcely in any instance deviated from it, except, where from the different changes, our predecessors would probably have done the same.

Since our last Address a new and unexpected source of difficulty has arisen.—The French Revolution forms an æra in history of considerable importance; and the controversies which this event and the conduct of the National Assembly have occasioned, compelled us to make every effort to keep pace with public expectation and public anxiety. With this subject we found the rights of men intimately connected; our own constitution was again brought forward, and we had almost reason to dread innovations at home, from the zeal, the impetuosity of reformers, who were apprehensive that our neighbours would overtake us in the career. It was a subject on which we could not look with indifference; and, having had occasion to give our opinions in the beginning, it was necessary to be cautious lest error might be propagated by ourselves, as it was peculiarly our duty to prevent its being disseminated by others.—While we have endeavoured strictly to adhere to our former plan, we have had numerous complaints to encounter, and various excuses to offer. We are obliged therefore to have recourse to the expedient, that we supposed might be necessary in *peculiar emergencies*, and add an Appen-

dix, which the numerous political and constitutional works lately published have rendered indispensable.

This extension of our limits will enable us to add another subject, which, in the present political situation, is almost essential. While the minds of men are agitated by new events, or kept in anxious suspense by expectation, neither can occur to a Literary Reviewer, but through the polluted medium of party-violence in a despicable pamphlet, which may deserve the most ignominious corner of the Catalogue. The reader loses many opportunities of information, and the advantages of a candid retrospect, to connect with propriety the present with the past, and by that means to illustrate both. A review of this kind, without the violence, the illiberality of party, neither dictated by a bigotted attachment to old forms nor an impetuous fondness for every innovation, cannot fail to be agreeable to the dispassionate reader, and will serve to connect, what the practice of mankind has already united, the political and literary department.—This part must be confined to the Appendix.

When an additional Number became again necessary, it unavoidably led to another arrangement of our annual labours, which we purpose to divide into Three Volumes, since our late volumes have been considered as inconveniently large.

Our own emolument has not been considered in this addition; nor have our most active exertions been omitted to render it as interesting as possible.

With these alterations, alterations that can admit of no farther change, we again commit this work to the candour of the Public: may it continue with increasing favour to the next thirty-five years, when the hands that now contribute to fill its pages no longer move, or perhaps are no longer remembered!

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CRITICAL REVIEW.

 For J A N U A R Y, 1791.

Voyages made in the Years 1788 and 1789, from China to the North West Coast of America. To which are prefixed, An Introductory Narrative of a Voyage performed in 1786, from Bengal, in the Ship Nootka; Observations on the probable Existence of a North West Passage; and some Account of the Trade between the North West Coast of America and China; and the latter Country and Great Britain. By John Meares, Esq. 4to. 1l. 16s. Boards. Walter. 1790.

THESE Voyages claim a particular attention, not perhaps so much from their intrinsic merit, as from the prospects which they open of revolutions and improvements in commerce and science; revolutions unexpected, and improvements once distantly hoped, though now again brought within our view. At present, however, of these advantages we have only a prospect, and it is, we suspect, a delusive one; but it is our business to examine what claims it may possess to deserve our attention; and if the success shall appear still uncertain, what advantages may be derived from the attempt.

In our review of captain Dixon's Narrative, vol. LXVII. p. 184, we mentioned the discovery of the Western Archipelago*, called by that navigator Queen Charlotte's Islands. This groupe of islands, in the spot where the Archipelago of St. Lazarus was laid down, gave an additional support to the discoveries of De Fonte; and the straits since discovered, where John de Fuca said he had found an inlet, raised the expiring hopes that from thence the passage to the Atlantic might be traced, for that navigator has asserted that he passed through these straits to Hudson's Bay. When we compared this latitude with that of Lake Winnipeg, the most western lake known under that meridian, we observed that it was a very promising spot for the expected communication; and, from more recent discoveries, we may almost hope that some easy communication exists.—Mr. Meares gives the history of these different attempts in the volume before us, and seems to be more sanguine in this opinion than the undisputed facts will warrant.

Captain Cook was prevented by bad weather and contrary

* We call it the western to distinguish it from the Northern, a term employed to distinguish the Fox Islands.

winds from exploring the coast of America, from lat. 50° to 56° , and lat. 47° and 48° . On these accounts he seems not to have known that this coast, instead of being as he supposed the American continent, was only a cluster of islands, whose higher headlands and most projecting capes chiefly forced themselves on his view. Our author goes too far when he observes that this great navigator did not probably, in any instance, see the western coast of America, for at least Cook's River was certainly followed some way on the continent. Nootka Sound then, which he saw, but had no opportunity of examining, appears to be a part of this western cluster of islands; and two American ships are said to have sailed round them, in a channel as large as the English Channel, and to have seen land on the north-east, which may have been other islands, and capable of admitting vessels beyond them. We may anticipate the future narrative, by observing, that the distinguishing objects which they saw were very similar to those which John de Fuca has described: the latitude of the most eastern coasts of the Western Archipelago, seen by these navigators, was about $51\frac{1}{2}$, and the most easterly course of the American vessel was to 237 degrees of longitude east of Greenwich: on the north it is said they saw only sea, and on the south-east the passage seemed also unobstructed.

In the history of discoveries Mr. Meares does not, we think, take sufficient notice of the attempts to discover a passage from Hudson's and Baffin's Bay, recorded by Mr. Ellis; yet he may think it a sufficient reply to observe, that the Hudson's Bay company, from a mean jealousy at that time, concealed what was known; and that government, in possession of their discoveries, sent Messrs. Young and Pickersgill successively into Baffin's Bay, to explore a passage. The present company are more liberal, and it is said are at this time making some attempts on that side. Mr. Hearne's Journey we formerly noticed; and the sea, according to his computation, was in latitude 72° . Mr. Arrowsmith, from Mr. Turner's charts and journals, has placed it in the latitude of $68^{\circ} 15'$ north, and in longitude 228 east of Greenwich. Perhaps he saw the sea in another place; and this will seem to show that from Copper Mine River, the coast trends south-east, or very nearly so. If this was its direction Mr. Hearne could not have fallen in with it in his route, except in latitude 72° ; and that the shore was different from that seen by Mr. Hearne is evident from its being in a lower latitude than Congecathawhachaga, where that gentleman determined the degree from observation*.

* There is no little confusion in Mr. Meares's language, and in capt. Dixon's Remarks, which we shall notice soon. In reality the sea was seen in two places, in latitude 69 and 68 , according to Arrowsmith's charts, which we have carefully examined since writing this article, and in long. $228\frac{1}{2}$ and 248 respectively.

That there is a communication from the southern part of Baffin's Bay or the northern of Hudson's with Cook's River in this direction, is however, from various circumstances, not very probable. We shall add here some facts in support of this opinion, in our author's own words :

‘ There are, according to the most correct information, several curious charts or maps in the possession of the Hudson's Bay company, drawn by different persons, and some even sketched by Indians, of the interior parts of the country, towards the north west, and the lands that bind the Northern Pacific Ocean.—On the face of these charts, particularly on one described by two Indians, appear several rivers and inlets, unknown to Europeans, which communicate with the Arathapescow lake, and from this lake the river Kiscachewan runs north west into the Pacific Ocean, communicating, perhaps, with Cook's River, the northern Archipelago, or what we shall call the Straits of John de Fuca.—These charts bear a great resemblance to those made by the Canadian traders, which renders them extremely interesting.

‘ The Indian maps imply that Hudson's Bay communicates with the Polar Sea, which countenances the opinion of a passage by Repulse Bay, which itself has not been perfectly examined ; and this seems, as it is observed by the same authority, to be confirmed by an anonymous manuscript belonging to the company ; but it expresses the water to be shallow where captain Middleton went. The failure of this voyage, however, is well known to have excited great clamours and discontents, which, in many instances, struck at the fidelity of the relation.’

‘ This has been unveiled the whole of the American coast, particularly those parts between the latitudes of 50° and 55° north, and 47° and 48° north, and surely this survey gives room for something more than conjecture on the subject. It will teach us also to pay some attention to the account of former navigators ; since those relations of some of them which have not only been suspected, but absolutely determined to be errors or fictions, now turn out to be real discoveries.

‘ These particulars are faithfully extracted from nautical journals, and may be considered as interesting also, as they relate to the American commerce. It will, indeed, be for the honour of this country to bring these researches to a conclusion ; for though it has been a received opinion that it would be in vain to look for a passage in Hudson's Bay to the southward of 67° latitude : and when we find held out to our view how much more northerly ships must hold their course, at least some part of their voyage, before they can pass from one side of America to the other, yet may not the sea seen by Mr. Hearne be that very highest point ?—May not the Northern Archipelago, the Straits of John de Fuca, and Cook's

River, all stretching to the north east — some of them being more eastward than this sea — may not these be the very passages? — Is it not possible that this very sea, seen by Mr. Hearne to push boldly into Hudson's Bay, or the southermost part of Baffin's Bay, be some inlet or passage to the northward of 67° ?

Our author's other arguments show some credulity and much eagerness to believe. The evidence of the Canadian traders we have no doubt of admitting; but it ought to be considered that the same evidence place a large lake in latitude $63\frac{1}{2}$ north*, which probably communicates with Cook's River as well as Prince William's Sound. This is not inconsistent with their own observations respecting the sea in the 68^{th} degree, nor entirely with Pond's account of a sea being seen in 65° . The communication indeed of Slave Lake with Cook's River has been lately doubted; but it is highly probable from the situation and direction of each, while it is equally improbable that a lake, the source of so large a river, should be placed in an island; and if we admit for a moment this last suggestion, we must deny the connection of Slave Lake with Arathapescow Lake, which these same charts have laid down, or consider Arathapescow Lake, without any foundation, as a part of the sea.

On the whole then, though the appearances of a North West Passage are more promising in consequence of these discoveries, yet, we think, that no continued communication by sea exists. It is, however, highly probable that there is an easy communication by means of lakes, and a more ready and short one than was suspected. One argument, presumptive only, yet remains. As Juan de Fuca's discoveries have been so far ascertained, why should the rest be denied? To this we can only reply, that chance or accident having discovered to him some parts of this route, he added the rest; and, if this reply be thought uncharitable, we may observe that, while such strong impediments appear to oppose a passage, it is the only one which remains.

Another part of this volume, which is styled Introductory, relates to the fur trade, in which also we discover much of the eagerness of an adventurous speculator in our author's representations. We observed very early that the fur trade could not be carried on with advantage but from establishments on the western coast of America. This opinion has been supported by experience, for an establishment at Nootka Island excited the jealousy of the Spaniards. We have reason to think, that when we have no European enemy, the dispositions of the natives may be conciliated; but it cannot escape our administration, that as much jealousy must be excited on

the north and the west in the Russian settlements by these attempts, as in the Spanish colonies; and that, unless guarded against, similar attacks may be apprehended, though no powerful opposition is to be feared, except by land-forces conveyed in boats. A small naval force might check the whole power of Russia on the side of Asia, and give a severe blow to her revenue.

When an establishment is securely formed on the western coasts of America, the next step is to procure a market in China. The Chinese, we have said, are indifferent to European commerce, and already alarmed at its magnitude, but if their friendship is to be secured it is by the fur trade. Peltry they at present obtain from the Russians, and the friendship of these two vast empires is not the most cordial and sincere. They obtain it also by a long circuitous and expensive land carriage, while it is in the power of the settlers on the western coast of America to supply them with commodities of superior value at an easier rate, not only from that coast, but in consequence of the easy communication which certainly exists, by means of the lakes, from the shores of Hudson's Bay. The animals may undoubtedly be found in sufficient quantity, and the comforts derived from the necessary cloathing of more civilised nations, and from the supply of other wants, will most probably render the natives active in the pursuit. It is said that they have already been excited to diligence and activity by these means. It is necessary, however, to lessen the prejudices of the Chinese to European commerce, and to procure a port in the peninsula of Corea or Japan. The former cannot be obtained without the assistance of the emperor; and our author proposes that a splendid and honourable embassy should be sent to request it, especially as from thence better teas could be procured at a cheaper rate.

The trade, in other respects, to China, is represented in a very favourable light. The broad cloths of England, Canadian furs, and above all tin, are received with such avidity, that the ballance against us in this trade is daily lessening. It is indeed singular that this last metal, which in the remotest ages brought the Phœnicians to our coast, should now be one of the principal objects of Asiatic commerce; yet this will always be the case when intrinsic value, rather than the frivolous caprice of fancy, is the characteristic of the object to be bartered. As the jealousy of the Chinese government respects only their own kingdom, it is highly probable, that if a settlement at Nipon could be obtained*, the trade might be avowedly carried on between it and Corea. We may add, observing that it is a fact which rests on Mr. Meares's authority, that all the exports to China, during the whole connection between it and

* This would not be difficult, if the account of the enterprising Benyowski is to be credited.

the India company, did not amount to 100,000*l.* while in two seasons (thirteen months), the tin only exported was valued at 130,000*l.* and this not only in one period of experiment, but an average quantity of five years.

The introductory voyage, in the year 1786 and 1787, contains an account of the distresses of our author and his crew in their winter spent in Prince William's Sound. The winter was very severe, and the scurvy made dreadful havock among them. The natives were, as usual, thieves; they had no settled habitation, and the inhabitants of this part of the coast seem to be wandering tribes, frequently engaged in hostilities with each other. Perhaps, in a future article, we may return to some passages in this part of the work.

Our author next proceeds to a Narrative of the Voyage to the North-west Coast of America in 1788 and 1789; and we must begin with remarking, that we soon find the language so various that we suspect this narrative to be the production of two different persons. In every thing that relates to the manners of the Sandwich islander, or to a similar subject, the affected refinement, the warm glowing, enthusiastic sensibility which adorned or disgraced (the choice of terms will be varied by taste and inclination) some late voyages, is peculiarly conspicuous.—We own it appears not more unpleasing in itself than improperly employed; and, if the fastidiousness of a refined age requires such meretricious decorations, it no longer deserves to be instructed in the manly language of the best authors.—The ships destined for this purpose, the *Iphigenia* and *Felice*, are said to have been good sailers, copper-bottomed, and sufficiently strong to resist the tempestuous weather expected in the Northern Pacific. This cannot be the language of Mr. Meares himself, who was delayed by the slow sailing of the *Iphigenia*, and the loss of her mast, which was found to be rotten. We hope the appearance of the following account is not wholly owing to the language, but that it has at least a foundation in fact; for, on the reception of navigators at Sandwich Islands, many of the advantages of our future commerce must depend.

‘ It may not, perhaps, be thought improper, if a short digression is made in this place, in order to state, that during our former stay among these islanders we had every opportunity of estimating their feelings with respect to the lamented fate of captain Cook, and we have every reason to believe that these distant inhabitants of the watery waste, accompanied with sincere sorrow, the regret of Europe. The numbers of them which surrounded the ship, with a view to obtain permission to go to *Britannee*, to the friends of their beloved Cook, are incredible. They wept and solicited with an ardour that conquered every previous aversion. Presents were pour-

ed in upon us from the chiefs, who were prevented by the multitude from approaching the vessel, and the clamorous cry of *Britannee*, *Britannee*, was for a long time vociferated from every part, and without ceasing: nor can their silent grief be described, when it was made known among them, that Tianna, a prince of Atsoi, was the only one selected to the envied honour of sailing with us.

Previous to our departure, Taheo, the king of that Island, paid us a visit, accompanied by all his chiefs. As they believed that the commanders of every European ship, who had touched at their islands, since the death of captain Cook, were the sons of that illustrious navigator, they, in the most affecting manner, deplored that event; and while each of them was solicitous to assert his own innocence, they united in representing the passions that urged them to commit the fatal deed—which would be a subject of their eternal contrition—as a punishment inflicted on them by their gods. After these, and many similar declarations, they renewed their offers of friendship to *Britannee*, and departed; nor have we the least doubt but that future navigators, who may chance to stop at these islands, will find there a secure and welcome asylum.

The track of our voyagers was difficult and dangerous: indeed, on farther examination, Mr. Meares prefers the easterly course between Luconia and Formosa; but perhaps the season was too far advanced for the attempt at this time. They proceeded to the south-east, passing the south-western cape of Manilla, through the Soloo sea to Magindanao: they then took their departure from Sanboingnan, and, proceeding south-easterly, between Jelolo and Moringtay, reached very nearly to the line, on the northernmost point of New Guinea. Having cleared this intricate navigation, whose shoals and small islands seem to be the remains of a ruined continent, their course was easterly and north-easterly to about 40 degrees of north latitude; and, having advanced so near the latitude of Nootka Island, they run down their longitude, and arrive after a period of near four months.

In this run the nautical directions are very important; but these are neither interesting to general readers, nor useful in an abridgment. At Mindanao, the Botany Bay of the government of the Philippines, we meet with some curious information. This island, the most easterly spot on which Europeans are to be found, Sidney Cove alone, we believe, excepted, is 120 miles in breadth, and 160 in length; but it is much broken and intersected by the sea, while its interior parts are varied by hills and fertile meadows, watered by rivers, which, by the rain pouring from the hills, often become destructive torrents. In the middle parts of the island there are said to be beautiful lakes; but, in reality, from fear of the

Malays, the Spaniards are but imperfectly acquainted with these parts. The productions are rice, tobacco, bees wax, and spices. Of the latter the most valuable is cinnamon, which may perhaps grow in the Society Islands, though we suspect the climate of the Sandwich Islands, to which Mr. Meares purposed to carry some plants, is too cold. There is said to be some gold in the interior parts, for it is occasionally washed down by the torrents; but the inhabitants are too inhospitable to admit of any very careful search, or the more deliberate operations of mining. Independent of the Spaniards, there are the Malays, who are Mahometans, and a savage race, profoundly ignorant, called the Hilloonas. They are distinguished by the name of the Negroes of the Mountain by the Spaniards, on account of their resemblance to the negroes of Africa in their persons; but it is disgracing the latter to add, with our author, 'in their manners.' The Hilloonas are supposed to be the aborigines, the same race originally scattered over this Archipelago, who were conquered by the Mahometans; and driven to the mountains to preserve their liberty. The Mahometans of this island are of a deep copper colour, robust, and intelligent. The Spaniards are almost confined to their fortresses; and death, or the most cruel slavery, is the consequence of falling into the hands of the ferocious race which inhabits this island.

' The island is well wooded; many parts of it towards the sea-coast, are covered with impenetrable forests: in others, the woods are scattered with a pleasing irregularity, contributing not only to the beauty of the country, but to its comfort and convenience, by shading the hills and vallies from the scorching heat of the sun. The species of trees that are most abundant, are the teake, the poone, and the larch; but its most valuable and precious growth, is the cinnamon tree, which is to be found in every part of the island, and is of a quality by no means inferior to that of Ceylon. We received samples fresh from the tree, that possessed a delicacy of taste and fragrance equal to any that is brought from thence. Our good friend the padre was so kind as to procure us forty young plants of the true cinnamon tree, which were intended for the Sandwich Islands.

' The air of Magindanao is esteemed salubrious, particularly in the vicinity of the sea. The heat there is not, in any degree, so intense as might be expected, in a country which is situated on the very verge of the torrid zone. I do not recollect to have seen the thermometer at more than eighty-eight degrees, and it was very often so low as seventy-two. The prevalence of the easterly winds on that part of the coast which is washed by the Pacific Ocean, renders the air cool and pleasant, the trade-wind blowing incessantly on

on its shores. It acts, indeed, with so much power as to sweep the whole breadth of the island; and though in its passage it loses much of its strength, it retains a sufficient degree of force to afford refreshing breezes to the inhabitants of the Western shore. The interior parts are much colder, from a very cloudy atmosphere, which frequently hangs over the summits of the mountains in thick and humid vapours.

‘ The soil, which is very exuberant, is suited to the cultivation of the whole vegetable tribes. Rice is produced in the greatest abundance; a pecul, or 133lb. may be purchased for a Spanish dollar.

‘ The yam and sweet potatoe are cultivated in the highest perfection. Here are also to be found the cocoa nut, pumble-nose, mangoes, the jack, the plantain, oranges, limes, and, in short, every fruit that is produced in climates of the same parallel.’

The animals of Mindanao are buffalos, cows, hogs, goats, &c. there is a variety of fowls, a peculiar species of duck, and a small breed of horses remarkable for their spirit. The buffalos are ferociously wild and untractable, but soon after being on board and carried nearer the line, they lost their ferocity, and were familiarly tame. The Spanish inhabitants were courteous; and cheerfulness does not seem to have withdrawn its influence from this distant spot, in which nature has also supplied various luxuries.

The Bashies Islands are particularly described: these were taken possession of by the Spaniards in 1783, and they were still held in 1786; but it has been reported that the troops have been since withdrawn: the object of this colony was to procure gold, as some of this metal was certainly found in the beds of the rivers, washed down from the mountains. These islands are inhabited by a mild, inoffensive race, whose chief amusement is drinking bashee, a liquor fermented from sugar and rice.

The Freewill Islands were discovered by captain Carteret, and denominated from the benevolence of the natives: they lie in about 1° of north latitude, and 137° east longitude. Our author remarks, and it is an observation we think of importance, in the question relating to the population of the islands in the Northern Pacific, that the inhabitants resemble in ‘ appearance’ and language, the Sandwich islanders.

‘ They came along-side the ship without ceremony and without arms, and supplied us with a considerable quantity of fresh gathered cocoa-nuts and coir line, which was repaid by bits of iron hoop, of about an inch in length.

‘ When the piece of iron was held up to their attention, they were all seized with a kind of silent, but expressive joy, that cannot be described: but the man who procured it, immediately began

gan to caper and dance round the deck, and laying down on his back, tumbled and rolled about in such an extraordinary manner, that we really imagined he was suddenly affected by some very singular disorder, till he rose up and kissed the bit of iron with those emotions of extravagant joy, which manifested the extreme delight he felt at being in the possession of what he esteemed so great a treasure. His comrades, from an anxious curiosity to see it, crowded round him; but in a moment he had plunged himself into the sea, and then turning his head towards us, and again kissing the bit of iron, he swam hastily to the shore. Several iron hoops were now ordered to be cut up, and each of our visitors was gratified with a bit of the precious metal, who all left us with reiterated expressions of the most grateful acknowledgment.

These islanders are of a frank, amiable and confidential disposition; and they found in return, that kind of reception from us, which they will not quickly forget. We observed, however, in their canoes large mats, which, on enquiry, they informed us were used by them as coats of mail, and were capable of resisting the attack of a spear; indeed, so close and strong is their texture, that at a very small distance, they could scarcely be penetrated by a ball from a pistol.

It is remarkable, that the hurricanes in these seas are familiarly called Tuffoons, and the similarity of this word to the Greek *Τυφών*, preserving even the pronunciation, may raise some conjectures. We suspect it to have been derived from a common aboriginal language, or to have been borrowed by the Greeks, with their mythology and philosophy, from the East. An isolated rock, at a distance resembling a first-rate man of war under sail, afforded a singular appearance. It occurred in lat. $29^{\circ} 50'$ east, longitude $142^{\circ} 23'$. It is at a distance from any known island, though various circumstances seem to show that land, yet undiscovered, is near. The sailors called it Lot's Wife, though it certainly was not a pillar of salt.

As we have mentioned the most remarkable occurrences of the voyage, and our author is safely arrived at Nootka Island, we shall take a future opportunity of paying our respects to him in this interesting spot.

(To be continued.)

Journal of a Voyage to New South Wales. With 65 Plates of Non-descript Animals, Birds, Lizards, Serpents, curious Cones of Trees, and other Natural Productions. By John White, Esq. 4to. Coloured 3l. 6s. Plain 1l. 16s. Boards. Debrett. 1790.

AFTER examining at some length two narratives of this very important voyage, important at least in its consequences, and the revolutions of which it will probably be productive

ductive in the East, we have not much to add in the eventful part of the history, and shall chiefly point out the little variations in, or the advantages of, the narrative before us, particularly in the department of natural history. New South Wales is almost a new world, and its productions are singular and probably advantageous.

In the voyage, for we shall not notice minute variations, we find some account of the mumps, a disease which we lately mentioned as it occurred to us in our review of the *Edinburgh Transactions*. It was observed in the island *Teneriffe*, and disappeared soon after their proceeding to sea, justifying the opinion we have had occasion to give, that it arises from some miasma. It often suddenly disappeared after the action of a brisk emetic. The oil of tar our author found very useful, but it is not easy to say from his account whether it is used externally or internally: we believe it is often used internally; but one of the best preservatives against the scurvy is, in Mr. White's opinion, a plentiful supply of water: without it the most powerful antiscorbutics fail, and with its assistance, he thinks the disease seldom proceeds to an alarming height. The phosphorescent light frequently observed at sea, seems, from the account before us, to be sometimes derived from fish. It is not improbable that it may have many different sources; but this property is commonly confined to the smaller living animals; and in this instance it probably arose from the little parasitical animals which constantly burrow under the scales of fish.

Our author's description of the *Brasil*, and the complaisant attention of the governor, are much more full and accurate than in the former narratives. Mr. White was more constantly with the commodore, and consequently a more frequent witness of the civilities. The rum, which we noticed in our former accounts, is prepared from the sugar-cane: it is disagreeable only at first, but never becomes highly flavoured or very agreeable. The account of the *Cape* is also more full and accurate, as well as the accounts of the southern coast of *New Holland*.

In *Port Jackson* we shall begin to follow Mr. White closely, as he seems to have had better opportunities of examining, and to have paid particular attention to this eastern extremity of *Asia*. We shall first transcribe his description of the spot.

‘*Port Jackson* I believe to be, without exception, the finest and most extensive harbour in the universe, and at the same time the most secure; being safe from all the winds that blow. It is divided into a great number of coves, to which his excellency has given different

different names. That on which the town is to be built, is called Sydney Cove. It is one of the smallest in the harbour, but the most convenient, as ships of the greatest burden can with ease go into it, and heave out close to the shore. Trincomalé, acknowledged to be one of the best harbours in the world, is by no means to be compared to it. In a word, Port Jackson would afford sufficient and safe anchorage for all the navies of Europe.'

The country in general is wild, irregular, and woody, frequently without underwood; but the trees are chiefly of that kind which produces the red gum, and the wood is consequently unserviceable, as the gum renders it heavier than water, and exudes in the sun, leaving the woody fibres unconnected. It seems to abound, however, in medicinal shrubs; and the red gum, nearly resembling the gum kino; the yellow gum, not unlike the balsam of Tolu; the peppermint-tree, which affords an oil more aromatic than our peppermint, are among those which offered themselves at first to the attention of the navigators. On the whole, from this glance it seems probable, that the materia medica, as well as different arts, may be greatly benefited by this voyage.

In their intercourse with the natives, the men discovered a cautious and suspicious friendship, probably arising from their dread of our fire-arms, whose effects they soon saw. In private, they seem to have assailed those whom they found separated from the main body; but we cannot be certain that they were not first insulted. They seem a poor abject race, whose utmost ingenuity is employed to supply the wants of life, and they display neither dexterity in their common operations, in their ornaments, or their weapons of defence. Their spears they throw with dexterity and force; but a sullen indolence prevented their powers from being known, except from the effects of their enmity, when they could throw the spear from a cover. In their battles, a champion was seen to come forward on either side, and to 'exchange a spear;' when he retired, another took his place, till the whole party had engaged.

The women generally kept at a distance, seemingly from fear of the men. Our author's description of one of the interviews we shall select:

'Those females who were arrived at the age of puberty did not wear a covering; but all the female children, and likewise the girls, wore a slight kind of covering before them, made of the fur of the kangaroo, twisted into threads. While we went towards the party of men that came out of the woods with the new canoe, all the women landed, and began to broil their fish, of which they had a large quantity. There seemed to be no harmony or hospitality among them. However, the female to whom I paid the most attention

gave me, but not until I asked her for it, some of the fish which she was eating. She had thrown it on the fire, but it was scarcely warm.

‘Many of the women were stait, well formed, and lively. My companion continued to exhibit a number of coquettish airs while I was decorating her head, neck, and arms, with my pocket and neck handkerchiefs, which I tore into ribbons, as if desirous of multiplying two presents into several. Having nothing left, except the buttons of my coat, on her admiring them, I cut them away, and with a piece of string tied them round her waist. Thus ornamented, and thus delighted with her new acquisitions, she turned from me with a look of inexpressible archness.’

They seem to live in independent tribes, so that no treaty can probably be made by them. When they are sensible of the advantages of the colony, they will distrust it less, and forbear to injure the new settlers.

We have avoided any particular account of the objects of natural history interspersed in our author's narrative, because we preferred considering the whole of this subject at once. We have observed that Nature, in this spot, assumes a peculiar form, chiefly distinguishable in the quadrupeds and fish. The birds, as may be expected, are not peculiar. We shall subjoin Mr. White's general account; yet, as the passage is apparently *isolated*, we suspect it to have been added by another hand.

‘Every animal in this country partakes, in a great measure, of the nature of the kangaroo. We have the kangaroo opossum, the kangaroo rat, &c. In fact every quadruped that we have seen, except the flying squirrel, and a spotted creature, nearly the size of a martin, resembles the kangaroo in the formation of the fore legs and feet, which bear no proportion to the length of the hind legs.

‘The scarcity of boats will prevent our being so well supplied with fish as otherwise might be expected. Fish is far from abounding at the cold season of the year; but, in the summer, judging from the latter end of the last, we have every reason to conclude that the little bays and coves in the harbour are well stored with them. The fish caught here are, in general, excellent; but several of them, like the animals in some degree resembling the kangaroo, partake of the properties of the shark. The land, the grass, the trees, the animals, the birds, and the fish, in their different species, approach by strong shades of similitude to each other. A certain likeness runs through the whole.’

The flesh of the kangaroo resembles that of a fox or a lean dog.

The cassowary unites the birds with the kangaroo kind. The species peculiar to New Holland is a new one, seven feet high,

high, and its feathers consist of two quills arising out of one shaft, and so yielding and tender as to hold neither air nor water; they are, therefore, no impediments to the animal's speed. It wants the horny appendage on the top of the head, and its head and beak resemble those of the ostrich rather than the cassowary. The wings are exceedingly and disproportionally short, covered only with feathers of the size of those on the body. The back-part of each leg is ferrated. It has no gizzard, and the liver is not larger than that of a blackbird, though the gall-bladder was not very small. The cassowary is herbivorous, and its stomach contained near seven pounds of grass, flowers, &c. the flesh tasted like young tender beef. It runs faster than a greyhound.

This volume is printed splendidly; and the plates, sixty-five in number, are executed with great spirit and remarkable elegance. Those which we have been able to compare with the objects, are equally accurate, and in general they are said to be very exact copies of the drawings which were taken from life*. In the body of the work several are interspersed; but these are birds shot in the different excursions, and they do not exceed seventeen. Many other birds are, however, added in the Appendix, to which we shall now turn.

The first objects of the Appendix are the vegetables. We have a pretty distinct account of four species of the *Banksia*, a most elegant genus of this vast island, to which Linnæus with great propriety gave the appellation after the discoverer, sir Joseph Banks. It is nearly allied, in a natural system, to the *protea* and *embotrium*. Our author, whose name we are not acquainted with, since the Appendix is not the work of Mr. White, distinguishes pretty clearly the *B. ferrata*, of which three very elegant engravings are added; the *B. pyramidalis* and *gibbosa*; but there is reason to suppose that there is another species not yet accurately ascertained. It is spiculated, and the capsules are smooth and shining.

The peppermint-tree (*Eucalyptus piperita*—an *E. obliqua* Heritier?)—the tea-tree of New South Wales, perhaps a species of *melaleuca*; the sweet tea-plant, which, if a species of *smilax*, may be styled with our author, *glyciphylla*, as its leaves are sweet, joined with an agreeable bitter; the red gum-tree, another species of *eucalyptus* (*resinifera*), and some parts of the roots of the yellow gum-tree, are next described and delineated. Non-descripts, or species before engraved imperfectly or inaccurately, are alone given. Four new species of birds follow; next are some new lizards, an account of a blue frog, various descriptions of birds, lizards, snakes, insects, and fish, without any order, and without affording us any thing particular to remark.

* It should have been from the natural objects, for the drawings evidently represent stuffed specimens.

We should indeed have enlarged a little on the catalogue before us, but that it affords rather a glance of future discoveries, than any thing satisfactory on the different heads. This is not intended as a reflection on Mr. White, for in the short time he resided at Port Jackson, we are rather surprised that he has done so much. Another reason for passing over these different species so cursorily, was to give some account of Mr. Hunter's very judicious remarks on the animals of New South Wales: those which follow relate to the kangaroo.

• This animal, probably from its size, was the principal one taken notice of in this island; the only parts at first brought home were some skins and some skulls; and I was favoured with one of the skulls from sir Joseph Banks. As the teeth of such animals as are already known, in some degree point out their digestive organs, I was in hopes that I might have been able to form an opinion of the particular tribe of the animals already known, to which the kangaroo should belong; but the teeth did not accord with those of any one class of animals I was acquainted with, therefore I was obliged to wait with patience till I could get the whole: and in many of its other organs the deviation from other animals is not less than in its teeth. In its mode of propagation it very probably comes nearer to the opossum than any other animal; although it is not at all similar to it in other respects. Its hair is of a greyish brown colour, similar to that of the wild rabbit of Great Britain, is thick and long when the animal is old; but it is late in growing, and when begun to grow, it is like a strong down; however, in some parts it begins earlier than others, as about the mouth, &c. In all of the young kangaroos yet brought home (although some as large as a full grown cat), they have all the marks of a fœtus; no hair; ears lapped close over the head; no marks on the feet of having been used in progressive motion. The large nail on the great toe sharp at the point; and the sides of the mouth united, something like the eye-lids of a puppy just whelped, having only a passage at the anterior part. This union of the two lips on the sides is of a particular structure, it wears off as it grows up, and by the time it is of the size of a small rabbit, disappears.

• The teeth of this animal (the kangaroo) are so singular, that it is impossible, from them, to say what tribe it is of. There is a faint mixture in them, corresponding to those of different tribes of animals.

• Take the mouth at large, respecting the situation of the teeth, it would class in some degree with the *scalpris dentata*; in a fainter degree with the horse, and ruminants; and with regard to the line of direction of all the teeth, they are very like those of the *scalpris dentata*. The fore teeth in the upper jaw agree with the hog; and those in the lower, in number, with the *scalpris dentata*, but with
regard

regard to position, and probably use, with the hog. The grinders would seem to be a mixture of hog and ruminants; the enamel on their external and grinding surfaces, rather formed into several cutting edges, than points. There are six incisors in the upper-jaw, and only two in the lower; but these two are so placed as to oppose those of the upper; five grinders in each side of each jaw, the most anterior of which is small. The proportions of some of the parts of this animal bear no analogy to what is common in most others. The disproportions in the length between the fore legs and the hind are very considerable; also in their strength; yet perhaps not more than in the jerboa. This disproportion between the fore-legs and the hind is principally in the more adult; for in the very young, about the size of a half grown rat, they are pretty well proportioned; which shews that at the early period of life they do not use progressive motion. The proportions of the different parts of which the hind legs are composed, are very different. The thigh of the kangaroo is extremely short, and the leg is very long. The hind foot is uncommonly long; on which, to appearance, are placed three toes, the middle toe by much the largest and the strongest, and looks something like the long toe of an ostrich. The outer toe is next in size; and what appears to be the inner toe, is two, inclosed in one skin or covering.

‘ The great toe nail much resembles that of an ostrich, as also the nail of the outer toe; and the inner, which appears to be but one toe, has two small nails, which are bent and sharp.

‘ From the heel, along the underside of the foot and toe, the skin is adapted for walking upon.

‘ The fore legs, in the full grown kangaroo, are small in proportion to the hind, or the size of the animal; the feet, or hands, are also small; the skin on the palm is different from that on the back of the hand and fingers. There are five toes or fingers on this foot; the middle rather the largest; the others become very gradually shorter, and are all nearly of the same shape. The nails are sharp, fit for holding. The tail is long in the old; but not so long, in proportion to the size of the animal, in the young. It would seem to keep pace with the growth of the hind legs, which are the instruments of progressive motion in this animal; and which would also shew that the tail is a kind of second instrument in this action.

‘ The under lip is divided in the middle, each side rounded off at the division.

‘ It has two clavicles; but they are short, so that the shoulders are not thrown out.’

The dog of New South Wales, in the engraving before us, greatly resembles the wolf; and Mr. Hunter thinks that in this form the dog is nearer to its original state than in any other.

It

It is capable of barking, though it does not bark willingly : it is ' very ill-natured and vicious, and snarls, howls, and moans like dogs in common.'

Many of the animals resemble in habit a racoon, but they have all the national peculiarity of disproportionally long hind feet. Mr. Hunter's remarks on the teeth of the tapoa tapha, an animal in appearance between the racoon and the fox, we shall transcribe.

' The teeth of this creature are different from any other animal yet known. The mouth is full of teeth. The lower jaw narrow in comparison to the upper, more especially backwards, which allows of much broader grinders in this jaw than in the lower, and which occasions the grinders in the upper jaw to project considerably over those in the lower. In the middle the cuspidati oppose one another, the upper piercers, or holders, go behind those of the lower ; the second class of incisors in the lower jaw overtop those of the upper, while the two first in the lower go within, or behind those of the upper. In the upper jaw, before the holders, there are four teeth on each side, three of which are pointed, the point standing on the inner surface ; and the two in front are longer, stand more obliquely forwards, and appear to be appropriated for a particular use. The holders are a little way behind the last fore teeth to allow those of the lower jaw to come between. They are pretty long, the cuspidati on each side become longer and larger towards the grinders ; they are points or cones placed on a broad base.

' There are four grinders on each side, the middle two the largest, the last the least ; their base is a triangle of the scalenus kind, or having one angle obtuse and two acute. Their base is composed of two surfaces, an inner and an outer, divided by processes or points : it is the inner that the grinders of the lower jaw oppose, when the mouth is regularly shut. The lower jaw has three fore teeth, or incisors, on each side ; the first considerably the largest, projecting obliquely forwards ; the other two of the same kind, but smaller, the last the smallest.

' The holder in this jaw is not so large as in the upper jaw, and close to the incisors. There are three cuspidati, the middle one the largest, the last the least ; these are cones standing on their base, but not on the middle, rather on the anterior side. There are four grinders, the two middle the largest, and rather quadrangular, each of which has a high point or cone on the outer edge, with a smaller, and three more diminutive on the inner edge. It is impossible to say critically, what the various forms of these teeth are adapted for from the general principles of teeth. In the front we have what may divide and tear off ; behind those, there are holders or destroyers ; behind the latter, such as will assist in mashing, as the grinders of the lion, and other carnivorous animals ; and last of all, grinders, to divide parts into smaller portions, as in the gra-

minivorous tribe : the articulation of the jaw in some degree admits of all those motions.'

A description, illustrated with a plate of some of the implements of the inhabitants, is subjoined ; which, as we have remarked, display no very great ingenuity ; and the volume concludes with a diary, &c. of the weather during the voyage. Unfortunately, in landing, our author's last thermometer was broken ; but on shipboard, in the middle of January, the summer of these Antipodes, the heat was only 74.

Sacontalá; or, the Fatal Ring. An Indian Drama. By Calidás. Translated from the original Sanscrit and Prácrit. 4to. 7s. 6d. Boards. Edwards. 1790.

AN Indian drama without the name of the translator, or any testimonies of its authenticity, will undoubtedly at first excite suspicion ; and, in an age fertile in literary forgeries, may at once be overlooked or despised. But the suspicion and contempt cannot be lasting : every page will convince even the most incredulous reader that if not the production of an artless age, where the customs, the religion, perhaps the superstition, as well as the natural produce of the country, is different from our own, and not unsuitable to what we know of India, it is at least founded on an intimate acquaintance with every circumstance relative to Indostan.

If its authenticity is once believed, different reflections must necessarily arise. To see a drama, advancing in some respects to the regularity of the most polished periods of Greece, in a country with which Greece, in its most improved state, had little connection, will raise admiration and provoke enquiry. Calidas, the author of this play, lived in the first century before Christ ; but he seems to have been far from the first dramatic author of Indostan. If we can argue from the improved state of dramatic poetry, we must suppose it to have been for ages cultivated, since in the more eastern country of China, even at a later period, the drama was at so low an ebb, that it was thought necessary for each person, on his entrance, to explain his name, his connections, and his business. The origin, however, of this mode of writing in India cannot now be ascertained, and its era is equally uncertain. If we recur to the origin of the drama in Greece, it is to be traced to the Bacchants, who, with faces disfigured or disguised by the lees of wine, indulged the most offensive ribaldry. Bacchus was, however, an Indian deity, and may have, with his name and attributes, brought this mode of entertainment also from Indostan. But this foundation is too insecure to rest on ; for the drama, either in words or action, is one of the earliest efforts
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of the rudest race, and we may trace it from the figured dance, expressive of peculiar ideas, to the more regular pantomime, representing successive ideas and actions, the simple dialogue, or a series of connected scenes. In the play before us, we have not only connected scenes, but a regular story, the peripetia or change of fortune, the catastrophe, and the machinery of malicious and benevolent spirits, which are suitably employed, and introduced only where there is a 'nodus dignus vindice.' It abounds also with many natural, many affecting incidents; and if some parts are not within the bounds of probability, according to our more enlightened state of knowledge, it must be remembered that Calidas wrote to those who believed that the various spirits had powers and inclinations such as he represented them. Calidas was represented in the eastern metaphorical language, as the bridegroom of poetry, the daughter of Valmic, educated by Vyasa. Valmic and Vyasa are ancient Indian poets of great esteem, whose works Calidas is supposed to have revised and corrected. The hero of our present play is placed in the chronological tables of the Bramins in the twenty-first generation after the flood; and their chronology is not impeached, in this part at least, of their computations.—We shall subjoin the outline of the story, to elucidate our remarks, and the passages which we shall transcribe.

Dushmanta, emperor of India, hunting in the sacred groves, sees Sacontala, the daughter of Causica, 'a pious prince of extensive power, eminent in devotion and in arms,' by a celestial nymph. Sacontala is educated by Canna, a venerable hermit, near whose habitation the king sees her, and is immediately enamoured: she yields to his requests, and they are married according to the ceremony called Ghandarva, peculiarly adapted to her holy origin, and by which alone their union was lawful. After some delay, the king returns to his capital without his wife, seemingly because the holy Canna was not yet apprized of the marriage. While Sacontala grieves for the absence of her husband, she is inattentive to the claims of hospitality, and offends the 'choleric Dufarvas,' a malignant genius, who denounces against her this dreadful sentence; that the man whom she loves with such great ardour, when he sees her next, shall forget her, 'as a man returned to his senses forgets the words which he uttered during his intoxication.' He is afterwards in some degree reconciled, but cannot recal his sentence. He mitigates it, however, by limiting the king's forgetfulness to the time he shall see the ring which he had given her.

On the return of Canna, Sacontala, ignorant of this severe denunciation, and now pregnant, goes to her husband, who, according to the sentence, disowns her. She is advised by her attendants, to whom the imprecation was known, to

show Dushmanta the ring. On looking at her finger she finds it gone, and it is supposed it dropped in the river when she drew some water. The king continues in the same forgetfulness, and she is carried away by a good genius, 'a body of light in a female shape.'

Dushmanta, notwithstanding the power of the spell, is uneasy, and seems at times to remember that Sacotala deserved his notice; but is not restored to his former memory till the ring is brought by some officers, who discovered a fisherman selling it. He found it in a fish, and the name of the king which was on it led to the discovery. Sacotala was, however, not to be found, till the king returning from the presence of 'the God of Thunder,' by whom he was commissioned to fight with, and destroy the evil demons, stopped on the mountain Ghandarvas, where he saw an intractable child, who would only play with, and could tame the lion's whelp. In this child, Dushmanta saw the distinguishing marks of royalty and power, and discovered that he was a descendent of Puru, from whom his own lineage was derived. He soon finds that the child is his own son, and Sacotala, who is near, presently appears; the termination, according to the strict rules of poetical justice, is happy.

This play, like almost every eastern poem, is an incongruous mixture of beauties and faults; but the beauties are, we think, unusually predominant. The deity introduced is the son of Brama, who is himself descended, and not existing from eternity; but the god of thunder is not particularly pointed out. He cannot, according to the Indian mythology, be the supreme being, as Dushmanta was made to 'sit on half his throne.' The name Divespetir, so near to Diespater, is suspicious; and we should have thought it more so, if the translator had not told us that he first rendered this play into Latin, 'which is more convenient for a scrupulous *interlineary* version,' from the Sanscrit, 'than any modern language.' If this be not an Indian word, our author might have by mistake transcribed from one *line* rather than another. That the *descendants* of the deity conversed occasionally with men is admitted, but that men were ever introduced to the supreme Being, or that a mortal should be commissioned to do what the deity seemingly could not perform, is totally contradictory to the Indian sentiments. The Divespetir, or the God of Thunder, must consequently be a subordinate power.

The language, as may be expected, is highly figurative, but much of the beauty depends on the peculiarities of the plants so often mentioned, and to which different actions are so often compared. Some few notes to explain these allusions would

be often necessary. Perhaps we might find some improprieties in this respect, if we were more intimately acquainted with the objects, as we do in those comparisons with which we are familiar. It is surely, for instance, not natural to describe the antelope when chased, pausing through *fatigue*, to nibble the grass with his mouth *half opened*. Yet our author soon compensates for this little inaccuracy by the beauty of the following description of rapid speed. Each passage is in the first scene of the play between Dushmanta and his charioteer, in the sacred grove.

‘ He could not escape. The horses were not even touched by the clouds of dust which they raised ; they tossed their manes, erected their ears, and rather glided than galloped over the smooth plain,

‘ *Dushm.* They soon out ran the swift antelope. Objects which, from their distance, appeared minute, presently became larger : what was really divided, seemed united, as we passed ; and what was in truth bent, seemed straight. So swift was the motion of the wheels, that, nothing, for many moments, was either distant or near.’

The following passage, descriptive of those circumstances which distinguish these holy spots, deserves attention, as it illustrates the religion of these holy Bramins.

‘ *Dushm.* [*Looking on all sides.*] That we are near the dwelling-place of pious hermits, would clearly have appeared, even if it had not been told.

‘ *Char.* By what marks ?

‘ *Dushm.* Do you not observe them ? See under yon trees the hallowed grains which have been scattered on the ground, while the tender female parrots were feeding their unfledged young in their pendent nest. Mark in other places the shining pieces of polished stone which have bruised the oily fruit of the sacred Ingudi. Look at the young fawns, which, having acquired confidence in man, and accustomed themselves to the sound of his voice, frisk at pleasure, without varying their course. Even the surface of the river is reddened with lines of consecrated bark, which float down its stream. Look again ; the roots of yon trees are bathed in the waters of holy pools, which quiver as the breeze plays upon them ; and the glowing lustre of yon fresh leaves is obscured, for a time, by smoke that rises from oblations of clarified butter. See too, where the young roes graze, without apprehension from our approach, on the lawn before yonder garden, where the tops of the sacrificial grass, cut for some religious rite, are sprinkled around.’

Again: the following is a description of Sacontala, whose hermit’s dress is composed of a mantle of ‘woven bark.’

Dushm. No ; her charms cannot be hidden, even though a robe of intertwisted fibres be thrown over her shoulders, and conceal a part of her bosom, like a veil of yellow leaves enfolding a radiant flower. The water lily, though dark moss may settle on its head, is nevertheless beautiful ; and the moon with dewy beams is rendered yet brighter by its black spots. The bark itself acquires elegance from the features of a girl with antelope's eyes, and rather augments than diminishes my ardour. Many are the rough stalks which support the water lily ; but many and exquisite are the blossoms which hang on them.'

The description of Sacontala, when emaciated by the anxiety occasioned by love, is no less expressive.

Dushm. [Aside.] Ah ! she seems much indisposed. What can have been the fatal cause of so violent a fever ?—It is what my heart suggests ? Or—*[Musing.]* I am perplexed with doubts.—The medicine extracted from the balmy Usira has been applied, I see, to her bosom : her only bracelet is made of thin filaments from the stalks of a water lily, and even that is loosely bound on her arm. Yet, even thus disordered, she is exquisitely beautiful.—Such are the hearts of the young ! Love and the sun equally inflame us ; but the scorching heat of summer leads not equally to happiness with the ardour of youthful desires.'

Dushm. [Aside.] Most true. Her forehead is parched ; her neck droops ; her waste is more slender than before ; her shoulders languidly fall ; her complexion is wan ; she resembles a MádHAVI-creeper, whose leaves are dried by a sultry gale : yet, even thus transformed, she is lovely, and charms my soul.'

It is a most beautiful image of the effects of anxiety, when Dushmanta observes that 'the golden bracelet has fallen again and again on his wrist, and been replaced on his emaciated arm.'

We have selected our specimens of the descriptive imagery of this play from the beginning, as they occurred, because there are frequent repetitions. The ideas taken from visible objects and those of a single spot must be necessarily confined, and the eyes of a beautiful woman must be constantly compared with those of the antelope, when nothing more advantageous offers for a comparison.

The religion is undoubtedly the more pure system of the ancient Hindûs. It breathes nothing but calm meditation, benevolence, and piety, in some degree disgraced by voluntary seclusion, a seclusion, however, which does not preclude returning to society, or the performance of the most important social duties ; and by the most rigid voluntary punishment to obtain the favour of the deity. On Dushmanta's return from
Heaven,

Heaven, he observes a Fakir (a Yógi) 'motionless as a pollard, holding his thick bushy hair, and fixing his eyes on the solar orb.' Mark, says Matali, a good genius, 'his body is half covered with a white ant's edifice, made of raised clay: the skin of a snake supplies the place of his sacerdotal thread, and part of it girds his loins; a number of knotty plants encircle and wound his neck, and surrounding bird's nests almost conceal his shoulders.' I bow, says Dushmanta, 'to a man of his austere devotion.' But a more pleasing picture of devotion occurs in the departure of Sacontala from the sacred grove. We shall transcribe a part of the scene.

'*Can.* Mayst thou be cherished by thy husband, as Sarmisthā was cherished by Yayāti! Mayst thou bring forth a sovereign of the world, as she brought forth Puru!

'*Gaut.* This, my child, is not a mere benediction; it is a boon actually conferred.

'*Can.* My best beloved, come and walk with me round the sacrificial fire.—[*They all advance.*] May these fires preserve thee! Fires which spring to their appointed stations on the holy hearth, and consume the consecrated wood, while the fresh blades of mysterious Cusa lie scattered around them!—Sacramental fires; which destroy sin with the rising fumes of clarified butter!—[*Sacontalā walks with solemnity round the hearth.*] Now set out, my darling, on thy auspicious journey.—[*Looking round.*] Where are the attendants, the two Mistras?

'*Enter Sárngarava and Sáradvāta.*

'*Both.* Holy sage, we are here.

'*Can.* My son Sárngarava, show thy sister her way.

'*Sárn.* Come, damsel.— [*They all advance.*

'*Can.* Hear, O ye trees of this hallowed forest; ye trees, in which the sylvan goddesses have their abode; hear, and proclaim, that Sacontalā is going to the palace of her wedded lord; she who drank not, though thirsty, before you were watered; she who cropped not, through affection for you, one of your fresh leaves, though she would have been pleased with such an ornament for her locks; she whose chief delight was in the season when your branches are spangled with flowers!

'*Chorus of invisible Woodnymphs.*

'May her way be attended with prosperity! May propitious breezes sprinkle, for her delight, the odoriferous dust of rich blossoms! May pools of clear water, green with the leaves of the lotos, refresh her as she walks; and may shady branches be her defence from the scorching sunbeams! [*All listen with admiration.*

'*Sárn.* Was that the voice of the Cócila wishing a happy journey to Sacontalā?—Or did the nymphs, who are allied to the pious inhabitants of these woods, repeat the warbling of the musical bird, and makes its greeting their own.

‘ *Gaut.* Daughter, the sylvan goddesses, who love their kindred hermits, have wished you prosperity, and are entitled to humble thanks.’
 [*Sacontalá walks round, bowing to the nymphs.*]

The description of the Indian elysium is curious, but an incongruous mixture of corporeal and spiritual images, of allegory and realities. ‘It becomes indeed pure spirits to feed on balmy air, in a forest blooming with the trees of life, to bathe in rills, died yellow with the golden dust of the lotos, and to fortify their virtue in the mysterious bath; to meditate in caves, the pebbles of which are unblemished gems; and, to restrain their passions, though nymphs of exquisite beauty frolic round them.’

Dushmanta is represented as a pattern of heroism and piety, as a good man, a benevolent prince, a dutiful son, and a faithful (faithful as far as he acted from himself) lover. In the following scenes he almost realizes the modern patriotic ideas, that kings are only the servants of the state; and this play, if it be really genuine, is at least a proof that monarchy, in the early stage of society in Indostan, was not oppressive. *Sacontala* was also written for the entertainment, probably the instruction, of a king.

‘ *Enter Dushmanta, Mádhabvya, and Attendants.*

‘ *Dushm.* [*Looking oppressed with business.*] Every petitioner having attained justice, is departed happy; but kings who perform their duties conscientiously are afflicted without end.—The anxiety of acquiring dominion gives extreme pain; and when it is firmly established, the cares of supporting the nation incessantly harass the sovereign; as a large umbrella, of which a man carries the staff in his own hand, fatigues while it shades him.

‘ *Behind the scenes.* May the king be victorious!

‘ *Two Bards repeat stanzas.*

‘ *First Bard.* Thou seekest not thy own pleasure: no; it is for the people that thou art harassed from day to day. Such, when thou wast created, was the disposition implanted in thy soul! Thus a branchy tree bears on his head the scorching sun-beams, while his broad shade allays the fever of those who seek shelter under him.

‘ *Second Bard.* When thou wielded the rod of justice, thou bringest to order all those who have deviated from the path of virtue: thou biddest contention cease: thou wast formed for the preservation of thy people: thy kindred possess, indeed, considerable wealth; but so boundless is thy affection, that all thy subjects are considered by thee as thy kinsmen.

‘ *Dushm.* [*Listening*] That sweet poetry refreshes me after the toil of giving judgements and public orders.’

Sacontala is represented as fond and faithful. Prosperity she bears with moderation, and adversity with resolution. But
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may we be allowed to add, that female dispositions are not varied by climate or manners? A little jealousy, vented in a sarcastic remark, shows that European and Asiatic ladies are not essentially different, when agitated by apprehension, doubt, or suspicion.

The hermits are holy men, eminent for patient virtues, yet they are said 'to conceal within their bosoms a scorching flame, as carbuncles are naturally cool to the touch; but, if the rays of the sun have been imbibed by them, they burn the hand.' If molested they seem not unable to repel force by force, but the piety of Dushmanta prevents him from attacking them, and his heroism protects them during his stay in the forest.

Madhavya is styled a buffoon, and we eagerly wished to see a specimen of his courtly character in an early and uncorrupted age. He is represented as a Bramin, the companion of Dushmanta, brought up by his mother, as her own son, to be his playfellow, and divert him in his childhood. Madhavya is allowed to represent the king, when in the conflict between love and duty, he wishes to stay in the forest with Sacontala, and is summoned to attend the queen on the usual solemnity of his advancement. He is humorous, occasionally shrewd and sarcastic, but, in general, a lively good-humoured moralist, not unlike the Touchstone of our own Shakspeare. Let us extract a specimen of his sententious reflections.

' SCENE, a Plain, with royal Pavilions on the Skirt of the Forest.

' *Madhavya.* [*Sighing and lamenting.*] Strange recreation this!—Ah me! I am wearied to death.—My royal friend has an unaccountable taste.—What can I think of a king so passionately fond of chasing unprofitable quadrupeds?—"Here runs an antelope!—there goes a boar!"—Such is our only conversation.—Even at noon, in excessive heat, when not a tree in the forest has a shadow under it, we must be skipping and prancing about, like the beasts whom we follow.—Are we thirsty? We have nothing to drink but the waters of mountain torrents, which taste of burned stones and mawkish leaves.—Are we hungry? We must greedily devour lean venison, and that commonly roasted to a stick.—Have I a moment's repose at night?—My slumber is disturbed by the din of horses and elephants, or by the sons of slave-girls hallooing out, "More venison, more venison!"—Then evinces a cry that pierces my ear, Away to the forest, away!—Nor are these only my grievances: fresh pain is now added to the smart of my first wounds; for, while we were separated from our king, who was chasing a foolish deer, he entered, I find, yon lonely place, and there, to my infinite grief, saw a certain girl, called Sacontalá, the daughter of a hermit: from that moment not a word of returning to the city!—These distressing thoughts have kept
my

my eyes open the whole night.—Alas ! when shall we return ?—I cannot set eyes on my beloved friend Dushmanta since he set his heart on taking another wife.—[*Stepping aside and looking.*] Oh ! there he is, How changed !—He carries a bow ; indeed, but for his diadem a garland of wood-flowers.—He is advancing : I must begin my operations. [*He stands leaning on a staff.*] Let me thus take a moments rest.— [Aloud.

‘ *Dushmanta enters, as described.*

‘ *Dushm.* [*Aside, sighing.*] My darling is not so easily attainable ; yet my heart assumes confidence from the manner in which she seemed affected : surely, though our love has not hitherto prospered, yet the inclinations of us both are fixed on our unions [*Smiling.*] Thus do lovers agreeably beguile themselves, when all the powers of their souls are intent on the objects of their desire !—But am I beguiled ? No ; when she cast her eyes even on her companions, they sparkled with tenderness ; when she moved her graceful arms, they dropped, as if languid with love ; when her friend remonstrated against her departure, she spoke angrily—All this was, no doubt, on my account.—Oh ! how quick-sighted is love in discerning his own advantages !

‘ *Mádh.* [*Bending down, as before.*] Great prince ! my hands are unable to move ; and it is with my lips only that I can mutter a blessing on you. May the king be victorious !

‘ *Dushm.* [*Looking at him and smiling.*] Ah ! what has crippled thee, friend Mádhavya ?

‘ *Mádh.* You strike my eye with your own hand, and then ask what makes it weep.

‘ *Dushm.* Speak intelligibly. I know not what you mean.

‘ *Mádh.* Look at yon vétaś tree bent double in the river. Is it crooked, I pray, by its own act, or by the force of the stream ?

‘ *Dushm.* It is bent, I suppose, by the current.

‘ *Mádh.* So am I by your majesty.

‘ *Dushm.* How so, Mádhavya ?

‘ *Mádh.* Does it become you, I pray, to leave the great affairs of your empire, and so charming a mansion as your palace, for the sake of living here like a forester ? Can you hold a council in a wood ? I, who am a reverend Bráhmīn, have no longer the use of my hands and feet : they are put out of joint by my running all day long after dogs and wild beasts. Favour me, I entreat, with your permission to repose but a single day.

‘ *Dushm.* [*Aside.*] Such are this poor fellow’s complaints ; whilst I, when I think of Canna’s daughter, have as little relish for hunting as he. How can I brace this bow, and fix a shaft in the string, to shoot at those beautiful deer who dwell in the same groves with my beloved, and whose eyes derive lustre from hers ?

‘ *Mádh.* [*Looking stedfastly at the king.*] What scheme is your royal mind contriving ? I have been crying, I find, in a wilderness.

‘ *Dushm.*

‘ *Duskm.* I think of nothing but the gratification of my old friend’s wishes.

‘ *Mádb.* [*Joyfully.*] Then may the king live long.

[*Rising, but counterfeiting feebleness.*]

‘ *Duskm.* Stay ; and listen to me attentively.

‘ *Mádb.* Let the king command.

‘ *Duskm.* When you have taken repose, I shall want your assistance in another business, that will give you no fatigue.

‘ *Mádb.* Oh ! what can that be, unless it be eating rice-pudding.

‘ *Duskm.* You shall know in due time.’

The other characters are not of great importance ; but the humours of the officers, who detect the fishermen selling the ring, remind us of what we omitted to observe. The play is said to be written in pure Sanscrit, at least this is the language of the principal personages : the females speak a softer dialect of this language, the Pracrit, and the common people, the peculiar language of their province. This is not uncommon in the dramatic works of Europe, from Plautus to Molière, and some of the modern Italian comedies. In England, provincial dialects are only introduced to add to the humour of the scene.

We must now leave this play, which we have found particularly interesting. We need not, we think, apologise for the length of our article. It was necessary to attend to a stranger with some care, not to violate the laws of hospitality, particularly when we found him so deserving of our attention. We have examined this drama with more care, as it is *professedly* descriptive of a people whose early manners were imperfectly known, and of a religion and customs which, in their progressive communication, seem to have had an extensive influence. In this view, we have chosen to consider it, rather than to estimate its merits by the rules of Aristotle ; yet, as we have hinted, this play is more regular in its construction than we could have suspected, and by a very little alteration, as is suggested in the preface, might be brought with advantage on the stage. In our extracts we have given sufficient proofs of its merit, and we can only add our thanks to the translator for bringing it within the sphere of our attention. Our suspicions, however, are scarcely quieted, for oriental manners and oriental imagery may be easily imitated.

The Galaxy. Consisting of a Variety of Sacred and other Poetry.

The Whole original and new. By W. Belcher, and others.

4to. 12s. Boards. Evans. 1790.

WE know not with what propriety the whole of this collection can be said to be *new*, when one of the poems in its title-page is announced as the second edition : but in the
third

third possibly the editor will explain the difficulty. It is entitled the *je ne sçai quoi*, and indeed entirely *new* to us, as we believe it is to our readers. The Lilliputian measure is adopted, because 'that *twice two* struck the author as containing a compact terseness, and on consideration accorded, as being as true and perfect as any our tongue affords; resembling a little man who supplies his defect in size by his agility.' It begins thus,

O Muse! relate
The drift of fate.

But this should not be styled *original*: it is an evident plagiarism of the metrical argument prefixed to the third book of Parnell's translation of Homer's Battle of the Frogs and Mice.

'Dire Gamma relates
The work of the Fates.'

That the author's talents are better adapted, and would appear to more advantage in celebrating the exploits of those four-footed heroes, in proclaiming the praise of a Meridarpax rather than a Hector, none, we trust, will deny after perusing the following lines:

'What bursting shells
Mix hells with hells!
Nature aghast
Mistakes the blast,
Fears lest the ball
To chaos fall;
Whilst the sky lours
With torrent-show'rs
As the cracks tear
The hurtled hair,
And powder's blaze
Flings livid rays
And hideous fray
Blots out the day.
Then, set the soul,
War's rage controul,
And with one fire,
The onset dire,
With bay'nets fixt
Flesh blood brain mixt

Heapt carnage made
By dazzling blade,
They, hand to hand,
Exceed command,
Wedg'd ranks o'erturn
And glorious burn;
And hurrying on,
The battle won,
The ramparts tread,
Alive and dead,
Midst lightnings spring
On conquest's wing,
To mount the breach
And thunders reach,
And rushing in
With furious din
The foe they rout
With mingled shout
And rais'd on high
The banners fly.'

'This, though to be sure very terrible, is partly intelligible: the rest of the poem is by no means so clear, and we are totally at a loss to guess what the author's drift in this *je ne sçai quoi*

quod could be, unless it was to adapt the composition to the title.—The sermon is indeed most admirably suited to the text!

The first star in this poetical constellation is, we apprehend, Mr. Belcher: who presents us with a dozen sacred odes. They are entirely formed out of the Psalms of David, condensed and reduced by a sort of chemical process to that number: their substance and marrow is assimilated and jumbled together by means of a *Carmen*, *Antiphony*, and *Unison*. But, notwithstanding these fine names, and the established credit of the royal Psalmist, we suspect the reader will not so greatly admire this performance as the author himself appears to do; nay, we question whether he will prefer it to the ancient version of masters Hopkins and Sternhold.

*' Bless'd, O bless'd be the Lord
By the children of men,
Who remember'd his word;
And the earth join Amen.'*

If the lines above of Mr. Belcher are allowed to vie in simplicity with many happy passages in his predecessors' version, the following, in sublimity and obscurity, which, with Mr. Burke, we allow to be often its efficient cause, is exceeded by few passages, as far as we can recollect, in Chrononhotonthologos or Hurlothrumbo.

*' Winds the tossing deep deform,
God blows th' etherial furnaces and wings the roaring storm.
Your city theme of ev'ry tongue,
Joy the list'ning strangers seiz'd
That it bright like Phebus hung;
How to find it true they're pleas'd.'*

The next luminary is Hannah Rowe; who treats us with a 'Pindaric poem, consisting of versified selections from the *Revelation* of St. John.' What a subject for a muse of fire? How must expectation be wound up to the highest pitch at the sublime idea of the Theban swan urging his lofty flight in conjunction with the eagle of Patmos? But, alas! our old friends, whose version of the royal Psalmist's Lyrics often thrilled our infant ears with awful delight, recurred so frequently to our imaginations, as to damp in a great measure the ardour of our minds.

*" To God be glory and the Lamb, divine,
And blessings, honour, pow'r for evermore combine."
All, all hail the mighty when,
Each string vibrates, each breath swells the wonderful Amen."*

It is, however, but fair to observe, that in the sublime-obscure she is not inferior to Mr. Belcher. To prove which, we shall give part of the description of the mystic Jerusalem: every page, however, would afford a specimen.

‘ Twelve gates massy it defend
And afar a lustre send :
Front three the east
And on matin sunbeams feast,
Face three the chilly north
Play with the flashy fires he bringeth forth,
Three basking in the sultry South
Flames scatter like a furnace-mouth,
Three rays receive of placid west
And with the morn the prize contest. [long,
Cubits twelve times thousand twelve, the fencing wall was
Tall, majestic, glassy, strong ;
Each base of rock on high conspicuous grav’d
With the Lamb’s apostles twelve, and sinful nations sav’d.’

An anonymous writer, whose modesty, we suppose, does not permit him to separate his luminous effusions from the general blaze, presents us with what he styles, *Free Versions of some Passages of the Prophets and other Scripture Writers.* Of this freedom a curious specimen occurs in a paraphrase on some verses in the twenty-fifth chapter of Jeremiah.

‘ God saith, a spirit with terrific stride
Shall banish hymen’s songs, the bridegroom and the bride ;
A whirlwind shall go forth and o’er the seas and mountains
ride

‘ The world shall be surcharg’d with bloated slain,
That not the jaws of death and tomb shall them contain ;
The corpses shall be horrible, shall filth and dung remain.

‘ Ye shepherds, howl, and lift a hideous cry,
Like joyous sailors shout and wayward gambols try,
Hail, hail, upon a pleasant gale, to hell’s broad harbour fly.’

The last line is most exquisite ! It recalls the prediction of the Popish doctors (we quote from Tristram Shandy’s authority), relative to Martin Luther, who, they foretold by consulting the horoscope, ‘ must die cursing and blaspheming, with the blast of which his soul sailed before the wind into the lake of hell fire.’ The ‘ pleasant gate,’ however, makes it truly original.—A separate collection of poems, on various subjects, among which is the Lilliputian Epic, concludes this work ; and we know not which to admire most, the profane or the sacred poems. — From the similarity of style, indeed, we are almost

almost tempted to think that they are the literary bantlings of Mr. Belcher, Mrs. Rowe, and the gentleman to whom we are indebted for our last quotation: but we cannot suppose their modesty would have allowed them thus to compliment themselves in the preface to the latter.

‘ Borne as we have been on the wings of Pindarism to the milky way, and, rioted as we have done in the luxury of that immense dairy, whilst

“ Immortal pleasures round her swimming eyes did dance.”

Yet, soon after, it is said:

‘ With the former part of our work, *we* have finished our career of the peculiar temerity of combining sacred strains with Pindaric numbers: wherein *we* must incur the censure even of those well acquainted with the hallowed birth of the Muse, for attending her to the sacred fountains whence it is universally acknowledged that she sprung, though she is now banished from her ancient domains, and especially for accoutring her in modern habiliments and arranging her offspring in rank and file.’

What is meant by ‘rank and file,’ we pretend not to say; and as the authors probably know better than we do, shall leave it to their own illustration. We only contend that the two species of poetry, now presented to the public, are in some respect *alter et idem*, and either originate from the same ingenious writers, or others blessed with a striking similarity of genius.

Reflections on the Causes and probable Consequences of the late Revolution in France; with a View of the Ecclesiastical and Civil Constitution of Scotland, and of the Progress of its Agriculture and Commerce. Translated from a Series of Letters, written originally in French, and dedicated to the National Assembly, by Mons. B—de. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Cadell 1790.

THE author of these Letters is a friend to the revolution; he traces its causes with candour and accuracy, and examines the consequences with precision. We think, however, that he wrote very early, while the conduct of the national assembly was truly patriotic, while they adhered to the instructions of their constituents, and while there was reason to expect that they would establish subordination, regularity, and equality between the national precepts and expenditure. But more than a year has elapsed since promises of this kind were made, and they are yet distant from being fulfilled. In short, we may now say, nearly in the words of the author,

author, in his address to the national assembly, 'You have *neither* secured the glory of the sovereign, *nor* gained immortality for yourselves; in the short space of a few months you have invested a numerous people with the rights of humanity,'—and you have made them miserable.

In the first letter, our author offers some apology for the excesses of a mob, intoxicated with draughts which they had not sufficient strength of mind to bear. The following 'allowance' seems to show that these Letters were written in the infancy of the revolution.

'That people among whom I at present reside, view our transactions with more candour. Notwithstanding the ancient rivalry of the two nations, and the recent injuries they may have received, the conduct of the assembly of France, among the more enlightened part of the community, meets with great approbation. The stability of *our infant constitution* is that alone concerning which they entertain a doubt. They freely acknowledge, that if the blessings of a limited government be *already* secured in France, they have been procured at an easier rate than in Britain. Nor are they unwilling to allow, that the cant and hypocrisy of their patriots in the reign of Charles I. greatly obscure the lustre of their characters, and diminish that admiration which their virtues may claim from posterity. Their struggles for liberty continued for several reigns; they were attended with mischiefs infinitely greater; and, in their consequences, they have been, perhaps, less beneficial. In no nation, of which history affords any information, do we find a victory over arbitrary power, either so easily obtained, or so decisive in its effects. Those who have had the conduct of affairs, instead of being thwarted in their designs, have been urged to the enterprize, by the almost unanimous call of a whole people. In framing a new constitution, they are allowed freely to *profit by the experience of other countries; to improve on the models of freedom which these have constructed.* If no sinister accident obstruct their progress, and obscure the glorious prospect before them, a system of the most perfect liberty that has ever obtained among men, will be the result of their labours.

'Few will deny, that the abilities of those in the direction of affairs are equal to their situation. Without the partiality of a Frenchman, I might affirm, that no country can boast of a greater number of enlightened citizens than our own. It will be happy for our countrymen, and posterity, if their capacity and knowledge shall be seconded with an equal share of integrity and virtue.'

The objection, that a certain portion of knowledge and virtue is necessary to constitute and maintain freedom, our au-

thor opposes with great propriety, by showing that France possesses a sufficient degree of each. He proves it, however, not from the conduct of the national assembly, but from the instructions which they have overlooked, opposed, or disregarded. These, we own, breathe a spirit of candour and knowledge, no less than judgment: it is necessary therefore to disclaim every commendation of these, or of the assembly. We shall not be long in making our choice. *Monf. B.* who views, at the period of his writing, the documents of the electors and the conduct of those who were delegated, as speaking the same language, draws a very flattering conclusion from the revolution. At this time we suspect he would be of another opinion, for every single part of the picture which he draws from the cheerful colours of hope, so far from being realised, would now be touched with the gloomy tints of despair. Nothing, he thinks, can prevent the success of the patriots but the interference of other nations, and these he considers as differently engaged. He did not see faction under the veil of the noisy orator in favour of unanimity; self-interest in the cloak of public zeal, or the wages of a foreign court dictating the seeming language of patriotism. Yet, whoever has viewed the conduct of the national assembly, with a wary eye, during the last six months, will at once recognise the reality of the picture. The events of the present year can be only guessed at, but they probably will not be favourable to the present system.

Our author next proceeds in his tour to Scotland, and pays a very just and proper tribute to the spirit, the diligence, and the perseverance of this northern race. It is, perhaps, with less justice, that he considers integrity as being a more uncommon ingredient, in the characters of the lower ranks than in those of a superior line. The fanaticism of the Scots he attributes in part to the gloomy character of their religion, and to the disputes respecting patronage; for, while the common people have a right to choose, they will prefer those whose system and opinions are nearly on a level with their own. This cause operates less commonly than *Monf. B.* supposes, or its effects are not so injurious, for the greater number of clergymen in the distant parts of Scotland are far from being the gloomy fanatics which he describes. The church-government and the power of the elders are certainly neither eligible or advantageous; and we suspect that there are some traits of truth in the following representation of their effects.

‘By perpetuating the errors of a barbarous system, all men of education and rank are disgusted with the religion of their country. It will always be as difficult for the human mind to separate true religion from the unseemly garb she is made to wear, as to distin-

guish a venerable character under a ludicrous dress. In this country, therefore, that class of men begin almost wholly to abandon public worship, which enthusiasm has rendered ridiculous; and to despise those doctrines, the absurdity of which have shocked their understanding. To suppose that a man of inquiry in Scotland pays any regard to revelation, will hardly be deemed a compliment. To presume that he believes the orthodox notions of the stricter clergy, will be received as the greatest insult to his understanding. Many individuals of this class therefore launch into the dark and joyless depths of Atheism; a system, the principles of which are too wild and uncertain to prove an adequate support of virtue. But the generality of men of fortune, possessing less thought and erudition, content themselves with indulging an unrestrained licence of behaviour: they ridicule the systems of their country, without substituting in their room any sober rules for the direction of life. In a word, the established faith of this church, among the higher ranks, is as sincerely despised, as, among the lower orders, it is implicitly received. The consequences of these extremes are pernicious to both. The one class flies from religion with disgust; the other despises morality as unnecessary. The errors of both arise from the same cause, an obstinate adherence of the fanatical clergy to the dogmas of an antiquated creed, which does not enforce the obligations of virtue, nor accommodate itself to the rational ideas of an enlightened age.'

In the observations on the civil government of Scotland, our author's remarks are closely connected with the government of England; and, as the late revolution in France has led us to study and to admire the English constitution more diligently and fervently than before, so this part of the work reminds us of one of its peculiar excellencies; that, like a well contrived piece of machinery, it contains means to correct its own defects, and no erroneous movement can long continue, without exciting the ballancing powers. If this was accidental, it is almost miraculous; but, if designed, as the abilities of the last reformers lead us to believe, it must raise the most indignant feelings to hear the patriots of either kingdom consider the science of government as of late only, revealed almost by inspiration! Our author seems to think that the separate deliberation of each house of parliament, and the power of the commons in granting supplies, impede the activity and prevent the secrecy of the national movements. But these effects only ensue when a war is unpopular, and the nation divided. Our late armaments show that, in a different situation, activity and secrecy are not incompatible with a limited government, or inconsistent with the separate deliberations of lords and commons.

mons. We may allow it still 'to remain a problem, whether a government may not be formed superior to any that has ever yet been beheld among men?' so far, however, we are able to conclude in the negative.

The various circumstances that influenced the political government of Scotland, are related comprehensively and accurately; and the causes which have impeded the establishment of a proper and adequate representation of Scotland are properly pointed out. But we know many men of abilities and reflection, from that kingdom, by no means inimical to liberty, who, when they have witnessed the septennial disorders of a contested election, have almost acknowledged that their own is the less misfortune. Even our author is scarcely adverse to admitting, that those towns which have lately rose to opulence and importance, and are deprived of representatives, are not materially injured; nor indeed can it be so, while a numerous body of respectable representatives make laws as much for themselves as their own peculiar constituents. Frequent parliaments may perhaps be advantageous; but *Monf. B.* should wait, before he commends the new constitution on this score. The national assembly seem not yet willing to dissolve themselves.

The legal jurisprudence of Scotland is the next subject of remark; and the defect of the trial by jury, in some instances, particularly in civil causes, as well as the political and personal bias of the judges, render it less eligible than the system adopted in England, with all its inconveniencies. We own that, while we have personally witnessed the conduct of the courts in Scotland, we have not been induced to commend this 'standing jury' in a bench of judges, from whom an appeal is always difficult and expensive, often impracticable; and who, from different considerations, are not the warmest supporters of the liberty of the press: yet, in France, a jury in civil causes has been rejected.

Our author, who seems to have travelled for the sake of general information, next adverts to the system of agriculture in Scotland. We are inclined to consider the general attention bestowed it, to be owing to a different cause from that pointed out by *Monf. B.* but, whatever be the source, agriculture is now pursued on a more scientific system, and with more enlarged views in Scotland than in England. It is pursued only (we speak in general) less extensively.

'It is scarcely possible to ascertain the degree of cultivation to which Scotland may be advanced. The efforts of a free and industrious people have always been rated high; and they have always surpassed every computation. When we consider its exemp-

tion from the poor-rates, from the exactions of the church, and from an increase of the land-tax; burdens which, in England, hang as a dead weight upon the industry and improvement of the country; we are disposed to look forward to a period, when the agriculture of this kingdom will possess a decided superiority.'

As the Scots have been for some time the most scientific gardeners in England, they may become the most enlightened agriculturists. We would attribute it to their faculty of patient thinking, cool observation, and steady perseverance: in each respect the Scotchman seems to excel the Englishman, though the latter excels the inhabitants of almost every other country.

The spirit of manufactures and commerce in this northern district claims our author's warm commendation. Yet the fisheries, which will prove a mine of wealth and national strength, we believe, but we speak under correction, were projected by Englishmen, and at present in part supported by them. The manufactures of linen and cambrics should not have been unnoticed.

But our author returns to government, and to that of England: like a bent spring, he recovers with proportional elasticity, and begins to examine the tares of decay, which he thinks are sown with the good seed, that has already grown up into the political system of this country. The magnitude of London is connected with the power of its mob, which may, our author thinks, destroy the government. He is not aware that it is impossible to appreciate the heterogeneous materials, of which this mass is composed: it is a rope of sand, which, except for plunder, will not draw a straw; and, with this, it will be soon satisfied, for the desperate plunderer aims at present enjoyment. The immense sums of paper-money may end in a national bankruptcy, and the anarchy which ensues may lead to despotism. We cannot examine this cause in all the devious windings in which we may in the enquiry be entangled. It is enough to observe, that this evil must cure itself. Paper-money is necessary in an enterprising commercial state; and, when commerce declines, can only be injurious; but it will be the barometer of this last event, and point out the decline of commerce: it is then time enough to be on our guard. May not this system be carried too far? Undoubtedly; but it is the distension of a bubble, which every one fears to touch; it is a monster which contains more in proportion, as it is already gorged. We know not the limits; but we are certain that they are distant. Corruption is the hackneyed theme of the gloomy politician; but we have now the experience of half a century to convince us that civil liberty has even increased under it: so strong is her constitution

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in England, that she flourishes while surrounded with the most deleterious poison. We can fully agree, however, with our author in the following conclusion, and we may own that we think as he has supposed the English in general to think, disclaiming, however, every kind of jealousy on the subject; regretting rather that a laudable design should have been so fatally frustrated in the execution, for we would have rational liberty bounded only by the limits of the world. We glory in our own, and wish every nation to drink of the same salubrious fountain.

‘ Those great events which are at present carrying on in France, seem to forebode a regeneration of the different governments of Europe. Britain however has, perhaps, least to hope from such a change. The superiority of its government to those established in the surrounding nations, has impressed the people with the idea of its perfection. Many of them imagine it to be the most perfect plan of human policy. Long accustomed to consider their constitution as the admiration of the rest of the world, they will probably meditate no alteration in its form. While the severity of despotism rouses other nations to a complete vindication of the rights of man; the time may arrive when England, which gave Europe the first lessons of political wisdom, may find itself under a more corrupt government, than any of its neighbours, and may, in its turn, be called upon to profit by their example. Actuated by a fond predilection for their own political institutions, and stung with jealousy at the sudden enlargement of our ideas, several of the English regard our patriots as the Quixots of legislation, who, from too violent an antipathy to monarchy, are levelling the necessary distinctions of society, and flying in the face of all just subordination. In this light they view the impropriation of the revenues of the dignified clergy; the prohibition of all the ministers of the crown from a seat in the legislative assembly; the depriving the sovereign of the right of nominating the civil judges; and the intended abolition of that important branch of prerogative, which invested him with the power of making peace and war. These alterations so far exceed their ideas of a perfect government, that the most enlightened and respectable citizens of France have incurred, from many, this severe commentary on their conduct,

“ *Dum vitam stulti vitia, in contraria currunt.*”

The last subject which we need to notice is that of the church, and we may shortly remark, that if it does not possess sufficient opulence to hold up riches and honours as the rewards of learning and virtue, the clergy will want those incitements to each, which we wish them to possess; for whatever may be the zeal of a few, we fear the many want such additional mo-

tives. The English church *may*, perhaps, be too rich; but it will admit of very little curtailment, and that little should be employed in raising the lower ranks. The church of Scotland is too poor, and it may be proved by the necessity there appears to be of adding other objects to excite spirit and emulation. The church of France will still be poorer.

We must add, before we close this volume, that to a genuine spirit of impartial observation, our author appears to join considerable abilities, and a sound judgment. He has been fortunate also in a translator, whose language seems equally forcible and elegant. Of its fidelity, from some minute circumstances, we have little doubt; though, without the original before us, it is not easy to ascertain his merits in this respect with precision.

Plantarum Icones, hactenus ineditæ, plerumque ad Plantas in Herbario Linnæano conservatas delineatæ. Auctore Jacobo Edvardo Smith. Fasciculus II. Folio. 11. 1s. in Boards. White and Son. 1790.

AS we explained at some length our very respectable author's design; and described the execution of the first number in our LXVIIIth volume, p. 513, we shall not repeat what we then observed, but add only what occurs respecting this new fasciculus.

Its appearance, Dr. Smith remarks, has been retarded beyond his expectation; but that in future, if his health permits, and the public indulgence continues, he purposes to publish two fasciculi every year. Plants, even from the Linnæan collection, are sufficiently numerous; but their number is increased from the repeated kindness of his friends. The proper use, however, of his materials, he observes, is more commendable than the bulk of herbaria; and, by practice, he finds, that even in the driest plants, by the emollient power of warm water, and the effect of a strong light, he can discover the minutest parts with sufficient readiness and accuracy. At the end of the preface, Dr. Smith discovers a little too much irritability, at the strictures of La Marck in his Encyclopædia. This author had been a little severe on the president of the Linnæan society, because he had omitted to mention his work, an omission sufficiently accounted for, when it is understood that, in the Encyclopædia, the vernacular, and often barbarous names of plants are arranged in an alphabetical order; so that, unless these are known, it will be difficult, if not impossible, to find the plant. Thus the *thouinia spectabilis* occurs only under the name *eudrach* in the second volume of the Encyclopædia of La Marck: besides, that this au-
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thor's accuracy and botanical knowledge seem not to be very conspicuous. Indeed too much attention is paid to La Marck, both in the preface and in the additions; nor is it without a smile, when after being told that 'his censure is praise,' of 'confusion truly his own,' and of 'his follies,' that we find added—'Nolo in illum aliquid gravius dicere.'—But to turn to the work itself.

Of the twenty-five tables in this volume, the two first are species of sage. The first, the *salvia tubiflora*, was found by Dombey, near Lima. The flowers are very peculiar, but, in a strong light, our author plainly saw the stamina of the genus; though as he had only a single specimen, he was unwilling to dissect it. This species greatly resembles the *salvia coccinea* of Linnæus, and the *salvia formosa* of Heritier. The dry leaves of this, and of the *salvia amethystina*, which follows, have scarcely any bitterness or aroma; but in a recent state, the leaves are said to be as bitter as gentian root. The *salvia amethystina* should come after the *salvia coccinea* of Linnæus: it was found in New Spain by Escallon.

The *nerteria depressa*, a name given by Solander, from *Νεπτερος*; inferus, sub terra Jacens, is also found in New Spain. The name is adopted by Gærtner; but the plant is the *gomosia* of Linnæus (*gomesia* of Mutis) 17. It is a humble creeping plant, resembling the *monetia*.

The *lilanthus glaber* of Linnæus (Lin. fil. Supplem. 134.) was brought from South America by Mutis. It appears to be a beautiful plant of the lily tribe.

Two species of *Escallonia*, denominated from Escallon, the pupil and companion of Mutis in New Spain, follow. The *Escallonia myrtilloides* of Linnæus (Supplem. 156.) and the *Escallonia ferrata*, found by Commerçon, near the Straits of Magellan. The last is the smallest species, smallest at least in the parts of fructification, perhaps owing to the inclement climate in which it occurred.

Two species of *Ehrharta*, the *longiflora* and *calicyna*, are next described and engraved. The first was found by Mason, near the Cape of Good Hope; the second by Sparmann, in the same spot, styled by Linnæus, *aira capensis*. These two grasses are, in many respects, curious: our author doubts whether the flowers are not always monoicous; for, as the male flowers in his specimen were ten times more numerous than the female, he suspected that some pistils might be concealed, and he could not discover them without destroying his only specimen. All the species of this genus are found in the southern extremity of Africa, and our author has particularly described five, which are all, he observes, that he is acquainted with.

The *daphne pendula*, seemingly a handsome plant, found

by Thunberg in Java, is called, in Linnæus's Supplement, p. 409, *Scopolia composita*. The structure of the flowers of the involucre, and the number of organs, connect it with the daphnes, though it very nearly resembles also the daides. Scopoli, however unfortunate in his life, and in losing the honour, twice conferred, of having his name affixed to a genus of plants, for the *Scopolia* of Jacquin was referred by the elder Linnæus to the *hyoscyamus*, finds, in this fasciculus some compensation. Our author has added a short and animated eulogium on this very able philosopher, and proposes the *toddalia* of Jussieu, the *Cranzia* of Schreber, should be called *Scopolia*, since the first term is barbarous, and the name of Crantz has already been given to a genus by Swartz. There is but one species, the *Paullinia Asiatica* of Linnæus, Sup. 524. fl. Zeylan. No. 143. We shall relieve this dry description by transcribing our author's short account of *Scopoli*.

‘ Joannes Antonius Scopoli, florâ sua & entomologia carniolicâ ubique nobis & laudatus, post varios metallurgicos, zoologicos & botanicos labores, tandem Paviæ, favore Cæsario, chemiæ & botanices professor publicus constitutus est. Horas suas subsceivas impendit vir indefessus in colligendis naturalibus omnibus quæ potuerit novis vel obscuris, unde natus est liber ille splendidus *Deliciæ Floræ Faunæque Insulicæ*, ultimum ejus, infelicique parvum opus. Studiis omnium maxime innoxiiis devotus, omnibus bonis carissimus, ab omni Europa cultus, invidiæ demum artificiiisque malorum hominum irretitus heu quantum quantum doluit! Cum sese defamatum purgare arderet, rex optimus suus, iisdem insidiis iisdem hominibus male inductus (reges enim sæpius ex specie quam ex re vera necesse judicent) ardentem omnino vetuit. Fortunæ cedebat, sed anima indignata libertatem & justitiam altiori æquiori loco petiit die, 8 Maii, A. D. 1788.’

The *arenaria juniperina* occurs in Linnæus' Mantissa 72. The *arenaria juniperina* of Villars should be the *arenaria grandiflora*. Its country is unknown. On the authority of Gerard, it has been styled a plant of Gaul; but this appellation belongs, according to Dr. Smith, rather to the *arenaria recurva* of Allioni. In appearance, he thinks it an eastern or Siberian plant.

The *vatica Chinenfis*, a handsome plant, occurs in the second Mantissa of Linnæus, 242; but the reason of the name is unknown. Our author suspects that it may have received its appellation from its being used in the prophecies of the Chinese, for this nation is, in general, superstitious. The plant is little known, and occurs only in the Linnæan Herbarium, from which our author has copied the figure and description. Jussieu, in his Natural Orders, a work which our author praises warmly, ranks it among the *guttiferæ*.

The *heleborus ranunculinus* is a more beautiful plant than the *heleborus hyemalis*, near which it is to be arranged, and differs from it by the leaves being more compounded and more deeply cut, the flowers hanging on a footstalk, and not resting on the leaves, the petals larger and more spreading. It was gathered by Tournefort, in Cappadocia, and is referred by Linnæus, without sufficient reason, to the species of *Trollius*, styled *Asiaticus*. The figure of Bauxbaum, representing the *trollius humilis*, is much like this plant.

The *mentha exigua* of Linnæus was sent to him from Miller, and it is said to be a native of England; but it is not known in this country, and Hudson thinks it a Scottish plant. Our author is of opinion that it is a variety of the *mentha pulegii*, for the *mentha aquatica exigua* of Ray is the *mentha gentilis* of Linnæus.

Another plant, from the system of Linnæus, adorns the thirty-ninth plate, the *Castilleia integrifolia* of the Supplement. It was gathered by Mutis in New Spain, and called after a Spanish nobleman; but the structure of the flower, in this genus, is best seen in the next plate, representing the *Castilleia fissifolia*, where the flower, expanded by warm water, is more perfect than it appears in the drawings of Mutis. *Labium inferius brevissimum, trifidum, laciniis acutis*. It is a flower also of New Spain.

The *brathys juniperina* of the Supplement, our author refers to the genus *Hypericum*, and calls it *hypericum brathys*. In habit, the plant represents the *erica* and the *diosma*; but, as Dr. Smith truly observes, the connection of the stamina at the base differs too much from the usual appearance of the St. John's worts, in which they are connected in fasciculi; but, in other respects, the resemblance is so pointed, that to separate this plant from the *hypericum*, would be to divide a genus apparently natural. The flowers have almost always five pistils, very rarely three, and scarcely ever four.

The next plant was gathered in Surinam by Dalberg, and in Guiana by Aublet: it is the *Ægypticon betulinum* of Linnæus's Supplement. It is a bushy tree, but the corolla is wanting. The Linnæan specimen exactly resembles that of Aublet, though the latter has neither the fruit nor the female flowers.

Three species of *begonia* follow, characterised from Dryander's manuscripts, in the possession of the Linnæan Society. The first is a peculiar plant, the leaves strongly veined, above of a lively green, and below of an iron colour: it is styled *begonia isoptera*, and was found by Thouin in Java. The next is the *begonia ferruginea* of the Supplement 419, found by Mutis in New Spain, apparently a handsome plant; and the third

third is from the same spot, *begonia urticæfolia*, Lin. Sup. 420.

The remaining plates represent ferns. Three species of *marattia*, fill the 46, 47, and 48th. The first is the *marattia alata* of Swartz, a genus constituted by this author, who found this species in the West Indies, and with great propriety called the genus, after the abbe Maratti, a botanist of some abilities, but particularly distinguished as the author of an essay, 'On the real Existence of Flowers in the Dorsiferous Plants.' In this species the capsules are solitary, resting on partial veins, branching from the middle one, in appearance not unlike the barberry, if we suppose the berries fewer. In the *Marattia lævis*, a fern found in the island Dominica by Thouin, the appearance of the capsules is nearly similar, though the plant is in other respects specifically different. In the *Marattia fraxinea*, from Mauritius, the capsules are very near the margin of the leaf, which greatly resembles that of an ash.

The *acrostichum spinatum* of the Supplement follows: it was found also in Mauritius; is a very singular plant, the capsules occupying the whole of the inferior pagina near the top, and ending in what appears like a spica. In the original manuscript it is discovered that in the Supplement there is an error of the press, and instead of '*fronde petiolato-lanceolata*,' we must read, *fronde petiolata lanceolata*.

The last is a beautiful fern from Dominica, the *cænopteris rhizophylla*. *Cænopteris fronde bipinnata, apice radicante; pennulis subovatis, subfalcatis, petiolatis, primordialibus lobatis.*

Such are the contents of the fasciculus now before us, in which we perceive the same care, the same diligence, equal accuracy and elegance, which distinguished the first. We have no doubt of the continued indulgence of the public, and trust that our author will persevere in his very useful undertaking.

New Experiments on Electricity, wherein the Cause of Thunder and Lightning as well as the constant State of Positive or Negative Electricity in the Air or Clouds are explained; with Experiments on Clouds of Powders and Vapours artificially diffused in the Air. Also a Description of a Doubler of Electricity, and of the most sensible Electrometer yet constructed. With other new Experiments and Discoveries in the Science, illustrated by explanatory Plates. By the Rev. A. Bennet, F. R. S. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Printed for the Author. 1789.

OUR ingenious author introduces these Experiments by a general and popular explanation of the science, in order to render them more intelligible to less scientific readers. The first

first section relates to Mr. Bennet's gold-leaf electrometer, and its application first described, with the different experiments in the Philosophical Transactions for the year 1787, and noticed in our account of that volume. The third section contains some new experiments, with M. Lichtenberg's large electrophorus, and our author's improved instrument of the same kind. The very pleasing figures produced by the various ramifications of the stream of the electrical fluid render these experiments entertaining; but it is impossible to abridge distinct facts, and no very important conclusion can be, at present, drawn from them. The fortieth experiment may perhaps furnish an exception to this remark, and we shall consequently transcribe it.

‘A circular plate of wood 12 inches in diameter was covered with tin-foil, and furnished with an insulating handle, this plate had also three feet of glass about an inch long, covered with sealing wax. A resinous plate half an inch thick and of less diameter than the wooden plate, was laid upon a table, and the wooden plate placed over it, its feet standing upon the table on the outside of the resinous plate, so that the surface of the wooden plate stood about half an inch higher than the surface of the resinous plate. The knob of a charged bottle was applied to the wooden plate which was then removed. Upon projecting powder with a bellows over the resinous plate its surface was covered with circular elliptical and irregular spots and rings. If the charge was weak there appeared only small round spots, but a strong charge produced rings broader or narrower according to the state of the air and strength of the charge. After touching the wooden plate with a positive bottle, I sometimes removed the plate a little from its first position, and then touched it with a negative bottle, and instead of a single powder, the mixture of minium and sulphur were blown upon the plate, as in exp. 22, which distinguished the positive and negative rings by the yellow and red colours.’

The whole space appeared to be electrical; but the powder seems to be attracted by the sides, as the electricity was proportionally stronger there than in the middle, in consequence of the equally surrounding repulsion of the sides. Our author applies this experiment to the solution of the fairy circles; but various facts must be ascertained before this can be esteemed ‘a tolerable artificial imitation’ of that phenomenon. We suspect that all the circumstances of their appearance have not yet been accurately ascertained. At what period, for instance, do the mushrooms appear, and is the rank four grass the consequence of these, or of the original cause? We believe also that these fairy rings are never elliptical.

The fourth section contains experiments, in which the electricity

tricity is condensed or rarefied by the evaporation of water from various substances. In simple evaporations, the fluids seem to carry away from the vessels a part of their electricity; but, when any decomposition ensues, either of the water (a supposition only) or of the vessels, some new electricity appears. This opinion of M. de Saussure seems to be in some measure confirmed by our author; and it is probable from his experiments, that the appearance of positive or negative electricity, in the vapour, is owing to the affinity of different vapours to that fluid, as differing from its affinity to the vessel; for the states of the vessel and the vapour are always contrary.

The doubler of electricity, and the description of its improved form, occur in the seventy-seventh volume of the *Phil. Transactions*. It is well known that the usual inconveniencies of this instrument arise from the spontaneous charge, which is increased at the same time with the minute portion of electricity in the atmosphere. The improvements can only be described with the assistance of the plate; but the conclusions we may point out in our author's own words. The spontaneous electricity of the doubler is almost always negative.

‘ I hope it will now appear evident by the precautions and experiments mentioned in this section, and from the known laws of electricity,

‘ 1. That the doubler in its present state may be deprived of accidental or communicated electricity.

‘ 2. That the principal cause of its spontaneous charge, is the attraction of electricity by the approximation of its parallel plates.

‘ 3. That this charge may be positive or negative, according as the plates, or touching wires are composed of substances which have a greater or less adhesive affinity with the electrical fluid.

‘ 4. That the causes of spontaneous electricity are common to the condenser both in its original and improved state, and to the doubler, and equal in them all as far as they are equal in their dimensions and powers.

‘ 5. That since the doubler may be composed of very small plates, and yet its power be equal to that of a very large condenser, its spontaneous electricity will be more easily overcome by a communicated charge than that of a condenser of equal power, and therefore experiments performed with it will be less liable to equivocal results; and lastly from these considerations I have ventured to presume that the instrument may be advantageously used and applied to the discovery of new and interesting facts in the science of electricity.’

The experiments on the adhesive electricity of metals and other substances it is impossible to abridge; and the experiments on the electricity of the atmosphere are too unconnect-

ed to enable us to bring them together under any general heads. We may remark, that our author is of opinion that the electricity of the air, when it is serene, is almost always positive, derived from the earth by the assistance of the clouds. The particles of water are most weakly charged when they are in an highly attenuated state; so that, when the vapour rises into the higher parts of the atmosphere, much electrical fluid is thrown off, which appears in meteors, and in the aurora borealis, because no equilibrium can be properly restored, for want of a body on which it can accumulate in sufficient quantity to force its way; or of some conducting power.—Our author's description of his apparatus deserves great attention, and his meteorological observations are of real importance as detached facts. We have already observed, that they are too miscellaneous to be abridged: in general, they support the opinions just given; and we may remark that, during the easterly wind, the electricity was always very inconsiderable.

Chemical Experiments and Opinions. Extracted from a Work published in the last Century. 8vo. 2s. Murray. 1790.

WHILE the chemists of the present day have been gathering laurels to adorn their brows, not one leaf was left for the tomb of Mayow. It was his fate to be neglected at home, to be pillaged in foreign countries; and though large extracts were taken from his essays on their first appearance in the Philosophical Transactions, yet these early volumes, like the tracts of Mayow, are almost wholly confined by the usual fetters in public libraries. Our author was born in 1645, and died at the age of thirty-four. In this short period he attained no small share of excellence: his language (he wrote in Latin) is clear, energetic, and classical; his views perspicuous and correct; and his explanations pointed and judicious. The extracts before us have induced us to look over all this author's works; indeed we waited for the copy, which has delayed the present article, and we have no hesitation in giving him a distinguished rank both in physiology and medicine. In the latter, however, his want of experience prevented him from making any considerable improvements, but his treatise on the rickets is peculiarly clear, judicious, and well arranged: the errors are those only of his period.

It is necessary, however, to turn to the work before us. In a lively well-written address to Dr. Goodwyn, our editor speaks of the difficulty he felt in procuring a copy of Mayow's Tracts. He does not tell us from whom his first suspicion of their existence was derived, it might have been from the extracts in the Philosophical Transactions. Mayow was, however, quoted
by

by Hales, on respiration and combustion, (vol. i. p. 234.) but without any particular compliment; though it was a proof of real merit, to be mentioned by this amiable and candid philosopher, who has been too much neglected by the moderns. In Haller's *Physiology* Mayow is quoted as an original author, but not with the highest marks of respect. It could scarcely have been expected that he should have been mentioned by the biographer of Boyle, who was very little of an aerial philosopher, especially as he praises very slightly this luminary of chemistry; for it cannot have escaped Dr. Beddoes that while Willis was styled Doctiss. and others Celeb. Mr. Boyle has only the appellation of Nobilis. M. Blumenback, it is observed, is 'fully aware of the nature and importance of Mayow's discoveries,' and speaks of him with great respect in his *Institutiones Physiologicæ*, published at Gottingen in 1787; and in another work, *Introductio ad Historiam Medicinæ Literariam*, he styles Mayow, Medicus Bathensis, and observes, that he is 'inter primos de aeris factitii speciebus auctores.' Our editor is mistaken in saying that these essays were soon translated into the Dutch language, for that translation was only published in 1687, thirteen years after the Oxford edition.

It would be useless to give a particular account of our author's discoveries, so that we shall transcribe the outline from the address to Dr. Goodwyn.

'He threw away with scorn the vague ideas annexed by the old chymists to the terms sulphur, mercury, &c. He has clearly presented the notion of phlogiston, which rendered the name of Stahl so celebrated. He perceived the action of dephlogisticated air in almost all the wide extent of its influence; he was acquainted with the composition of the atmosphere, and contrived to make the mixture of nitrous and atmospherical air. He was well aware of the cause of the increase of weight in metallic calces, and distinctly asserted that certain bases are rendered acid by the accession of nitro-atmospherical particles, or what has since been denominated the acidifying principle. He discovered the method of producing factitious gas, and observed its permanent elasticity; and what is still more strange, he invented the nice art of transferring it from vessel to vessel. The doctrine of respiration is all his own. He has carried on his investigation of this function from the diminution of the air by the breathing of animals (as well as the burning of bodies) to the change it produces in the blood during its passage through the lungs and the use of the placenta.'

On comparing our author's abstract with the original, we have been induced to wish that his abridgment had been more full and particular. We shall extract a short specimen, and the reason of our choice will soon appear.

‘ The use of respiration is neither to cool the heart, nor break down the blood. He rejects also the opinion most received in his time, and perhaps also in ours, that this function serves to transmit the blood from the right to the left cavities of the heart. — This question has but very lately been finally settled, yet Mayow approached very near to the truth. He says, “ it is certain that the blood may pass through the lungs, tho’ they do not move : for blood, or any liquor, thrown with a syringe into the pulmonary artery of a dead animal, will pass readily into the left ventricle of the heart ; and any one who stops his breath for a time, will feel a pulsation in the arteries of the wrist, which could not happen if the blood did not in the mean time pass to the left ventricle.” Here, for farther information, he refers to a passage below, where he says, “ I know not whether in suppressed respiration the blood, for want of nitro-atmospherical particles, becomes so thick as to be unfit for motion, and to stagnate in the left ventricle ; for the blood, though not yet impregnated with air, is thrown with force enough out of the right ventricle, from which the left does not differ, except in being stronger to propel the blood, though that be now still of a thicker consistence.” Here he seems to have been struck by the objection stated by Dr. Goodwyn, if the black blood be a sufficient stimulus to the right cavities of the heart, why not to the left also ? The fact however is manifest, whatever may be the cause, which it would certainly be desirable to ascertain.

‘ He then lays down the opinion unavoidably anticipated in the account of the former treatise ; that the office of the lungs is to separate from the air and convey to the blood one of its constituent parts.’

‘ At this early age he had formed the peculiar system that pervades all his works : his mind indeed discovers perpetual restlessness, and an habitual tendency to advance ; for having conveyed the vital particles into the blood, here was now a very inviting resting place ; but he could not be content without proceeding to investigate what part they afterwards perform in the animal œconomy ; a question which has never been resolved, and scarce proposed by physiologists, except in as far as the contraction of the left cavities of the heart is occasioned by them, to which office who will suppose that their operation is solely confined ? he supposes that they are necessary to all muscular motion, and therefore to that of the heart : but he will explain—it is his ruling passion—the mechanism by which they accomplish this end : it is by exciting an effervescence with the salino sulphureous particles, and so causing the muscles to swell : this is the sum of the doctrine of the fourth treatise.’

A great variety of curious facts and ingenious explanations, a great dexterity and address in conducting experiments, an accuracy

accuracy of reasoning of which there are not many examples, and a singular acuteness in contriving experiments that shall be decisive, distinguish Mayow's Tracts: we trust they will no longer continue unknown.

Dr. Beddoes will perceive that we have attended to the dissertations and the different accounts of Dr. Mayow with no little care, and perhaps he may have noticed an expression in the beginning of this article, which requires an explanation. While Mayow's system seems not to have been received with respect at home, even by Dr. Hales, we suspect that it was copied by an Italian author. In the course of our researches on this subject, we discovered a Thesis, published at Bologna in 1680, entitled *Spiritus Nitro-aerei Operationes in Microcosmo*, by Ludovicus Maria Barberius. It is divided into five essays, and in the first he endeavours to show that some portion of the inspired air, viz. its nitro-aereal spirit, enters the blood, and contributes to preserve the life of the foetus and the adult. This system he is said * to support in opposition to Highmore, by various reasons, and at the same time to explain the mode in which respiration is carried on. In the second, he explains digestion from the same spirit, in consequence of its fermentation with the sulphur of the aliments, for the animal spirits are the same, he thinks, with the nitro-aereal, but derived by the mammillary processes immediately from the air. He adds, that in the glands and the brain also, this nitro-aereal spirit acts as a digester, and contributes to the animation of the ovum. In the third he considers this spirit as the nutritive principle of vegetables and animals. In the fourth and fifth he endeavours to prove it to be the cause of glandular secretion and of sanguification.

The readers of Mayow must determine how far the Italian author may be supposed to have borrowed from his works. Various reasons suggest to us, that our enterprising physician was the source from which he drew; for though Van Helmont at times speaks the same language, yet there are various minute coincidences † that lead us to suppose that he was indebted to Mayow, to whom C. T's animated and poetical address is very properly applied.

Tu scandis in altum

Ad cœlos meditatus iter; liquidasque per auras

Aereum immensum, doctissime detegis orbem.

* It will be obvious from our account, that we have not had an opportunity of seeing this tract. We owe our information concerning it to the *Acta Eruditorum*, vol. i. p. 340.

† Quatumque per Artus

Sulphur et explosum dominatur pectore nitrum

Auctori in ejus quinque tractatus carmen.

Sermons on various Subjects. By George Walker, F. R. S.
2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Johnson. 1790.

THESE volumes consist of thirty-three sermons on the following subjects: 1. Self-concealment. 2. Discontent. 3. Piety essential to a good Character. 4. Piety founded in Human Nature. 5. and 6. The Encouragements of Piety and Virtue. 7. and 8. Disgrace of the Christian Name. 9. and 10. The Resurrection of Jesus Christ. 11. and 12. The History and Character of Judas. 13, 14, and 15. The Crime and Punishment of the Jewish Nation. 16. The Parable of the Rich Man and Lazarus. 17. The Excellence and Blessedness of Charity. 18. and 19. Charity is Eternal. 20. and 21. Friendship. 22. and 23. The Duty and Character of Prayer. 24. and 25. The Happiness of being with Christ. 26, 27, and 28. The Parental Duty. 29. and 30. The Revelation of the last Judgment. 31. and 32. Well Doing the Universal Law. 33*. The Duty and Character of a National Soldier.

There is no species of composition more remote from excellence in this country than the Sermon. In general, it consists of declamatory rant, or dry distributions of the subject, with little regard to invention of argument, or pathos of expression. Of late years, indeed, several eminent exceptions have arisen to this censure; and preachers begin to find that, *if they will publish*, they must pay due regard to the rules of composition, and the examples of the best writers. The Sermons before us are the production of a good understanding, enriched with sacred and profane literature, interspersed with apposite reflections, and expressed in proper language. We shall extract, from Sermon xiii. the author's compendious account of the dreadful completion of our Saviour's prophecies relative to the destruction of Jerusalem.

* The historian of this siege, viz. Josephus, was himself a Jew of distinguished rank; he was not only an eye-witness, but a leader and principal actor in this memorable war. So great, says he, was the calamity of these days, from the siege without and the factions within, that nothing like it was ever known in Jerusalem. Many prayed for the success of the enemy, and thought that captivity and even death was more eligible than to be the living spectator of such a dreadful scene of discord, confusion, famine, and

* Preached on the delivery of the regimental colours to the Nottinghamshire militia, in 1779.

blood. The stores of corn and other provisions, says he, which had been prepared for this siege, were by the madness of the besieged set on fire; and such a famine ensued, as determined many to steal out of the city by night, and rather throw themselves upon the mercy of an exasperated enemy, than wait death under the slow excruciating hand of famine within. But Titus, even the merciful Titus, well aware that necessity, not repentance, had driven them into his arms; and judging, more from the policy of the general, than the humanity of the prince who thought the day to be lost which was not marked with good, that if a desertion which threatened to be general were not discouraged, the remaining combatants would be enabled to maintain a longer resistance; Titus, ordered all the fugitives who fell into his hands (and they were many thousands) to be crucified before the walls. This order was so severely executed, that for several successive days five hundred in a day were crucified. Thus they, who clamoured so loudly and eagerly for the crucifixion of the innocent Jesus, had, alas! enough of crucifixion: they who imprecated his blood upon themselves and on their children, obtained their prayer in vengeance indeed!—At another time, says the same historian, two thousand Jews, who had made their escape out of the city, had their bowels ripped up by the merciless Roman soldiers, on a report that these wretched fugitives had swallowed their gold and jewels, in order to preserve them from the rapine of friend and foe.—But the destruction from the enemy was nothing in comparison of what this devoted people suffered from the more cruel destroyer within. The factions of the leaders, who agreed in nothing but in the spoil and butchery of the people, and in their hatred of the Romans, exhibited such a scene of intestine hostilities, rapine, and blood, as must alone have exterminated the besieged, if the Roman sword had been idle. In fine, so dreadful was the carnage within and without the walls, that though the siege lasted not quite six months, yet Josephus estimates that more than a million of Jews perished; and many with such excruciating and protracted misery, as shocks humanity to think of.

‘The city at length being taken and sacked, the temple destroyed, and the whole land laid waste, the conqueror razed the city and temple to the foundations, and passed the plough over them, at least over the site of the temple, in token of a perpetual desolation, and as if destined never again to be the haunt of men: the captives, a miserable remnant, were sold for slaves. The succeeding year, in his triumphant entry into Rome, the spoils of this exterminated people were carried in procession before him; among which were those, which were dearer than life to a Jew, the golden table, the golden candlestick, with its seven branches, and the roll or book of the law.’

The following is a specimen of our author's liberality of opinion on the subject of acceptance with God.

‘ Jesus Christ came from God as a messenger to our world, in that ignorant, superstitious and corrupted estate to which it was reduced, to preach the doctrine of repentance; and on this condition, followed by a renewed life, to hold forth the promise of a reconciled and merciful God. This, in as few words as so great a scheme can well be comprehended, is the design of our Saviour's mission, the object of his whole ministry. This he maintains in such plain, but strong and expressive terms, as leave no room for controversy. Innumerable passages, of which there can be no misapprehension, demonstrate to the dullest mind what is the spirit of Christ's religion; what are the terms of acceptance from him as the appointed judge of the world. Jesus Christ himself has held no other language, has no where dishonoured and invalidated this moral system.—Say then, shall we allow an apostle of his, or even all his apostles, to throw down to the ground the venerable building which he had erected; and plainly tell us, that all the good temper of the heart, and all the good order of the life are of no significance, operate nothing to our acceptance; but that something of a totally different nature, and which certainly may subsist without either a virtuous heart or life, and which certainly has been associated with great and scandalous crime, is the *single thing* which justifieth us in the sight of God, and opens the doors of everlasting bliss to us?—No! not if an angel, descending in my view from heaven, should utter such a profanation, while God preserves the image of himself upon my mind, and I have the testimony of Jesus Christ, that he came from the Father on the errand of our moral recovery, would I put any faith in him, but abide by the more credible and honourable testimony of my Master.’

We admire Mr. Walker's spirit and judgment: but we must beg leave to rectify a gross mistake on a point of doctrine committed by the best preachers; and we perform this duty towards Mr. Walker with less reluctance, as his Sermons are in general free from those blemishes with which this sort of composition is too frequently obscured. Preachers are in the habit of condemning Pilate, and of heartily wishing that the crucifixion had been prevented. Thus, Mr. Walker: ‘ We lament the necessity to which he (Pilate) seemed to feel, and wish that he had proceeded one step farther, in adhering firmly to the better sense of his own mind, by summoning the whole power of the Roman governor to repel the tumult.’ Is it considered that if the event, which an effectual repulsion of the tumult would have suppressed, had not come to pass, the whole scheme of human salvation would have been frustrated?

And that it was *necessary* Christ should suffer? Pilate was the mere instrument of the decree, and deserves pity rather than censure.

We shall conclude this article with some ingenious speculation on the interesting subject of our mutual recognition in a future state.

‘ Let us attend, therefore, to the *presumptive* arguments, which render it highly probable that we shall know and be known, that we shall love and be loved, by those whom we have known and loved on earth.

‘ We are informed that we shall be tried in the presence of each other as well as of our Judge; and that every action of importance to our moral character shall be brought into judgment. Now this must be accompanied with a perfect recollection of all the incidents in our life which shall be questioned at that tribunal. But this recollection necessarily includes the knowledge of a thousand individuals to whom our actions and tempers and characters have had a reference. The remembrance, therefore, of our fellow-creatures, with whom we have been more or less connected in this world, follows us into the other world.—But it is strange to suppose, that, standing before our Judge, having a perfect remembrance of each other as we were connected in this probationary state, and each questioned and sentenced in the hearing of each other, for facts in which we are mutually concerned; it is strange to suppose, that we should not recognise each other, nor know that the spirits before us are the individual minds of whom we have a perfect recollection, and who have an equal recollection of us.

‘ As the judgement of each in the last day will be conducted in the hearing of the whole assembled universe, it is probable that this is provided by God in order that each being present to each other, and with the perfect knowledge of all that connected them on earth, may be witnesses of the justice of God in the awful distributions of the last day. If this be admitted, and it is a supposition which it is difficult to reject, it almost unavoidably includes a personal knowledge of each other.

‘ It is, indeed, impossible that memory should die; for, memory constitutes identity: it is memory alone which renders us to ourselves every moment the same individual beings. But memory of ourselves cannot live without the perfect recollection of those with whom the various acts of our remembrance are interwoven. Now, if memory live, the remembrance of those actions and of those connections in which all our virtue and all the good-temper of the soul has been displayed, and which are the ground of our admission into heaven, must be particularly dear to us, and render those still dear in whose society the temper fit for heaven was formed. This is, methinks,

methinks, and must be, natural to a virtuous mind, wherever it goes, and wherever it is: it would argue a defect of virtuous gratitude to suppose the contrary, and therefore the contrary can hardly take place in that abode where virtuous affection and gratitude shall be triumphant. In fine, every reasoning from the best form of the human mind, (and from this only can we reason as to the probability of our future state,) leads us to conclude, that we shall know and be known, love and be loved, by those whom we have known and loved on earth.'

These Sermons are calculated for the learned and the unlearned; for the pulpit and the closet.

A View of England towards the Close of the Eighteenth Century.
By Fred. Aug. Wendeborn, LL. D. Translated from the Original German, by the Author himself. (Concluded from Vol. LXX. p. 649.)

THIS intelligent foreigner next takes a view of the State of Learning in general. He thinks that those sciences which require deep meditation, and abstract study, are cultivated by the English with the greatest success; and that the latter yield in this respect to no nation whatever, if they are not superior to any. In England, he observes, the generality of the people are apt to reason for themselves, and by that means they stand a fair chance of succeeding in the pursuit of truth, the great and first object of all learning; though there are numerous instances likewise to prove, that even among those who are called learned, many are to be found, who have neither power nor inclination to divest themselves of old prejudices. He takes an opportunity afterwards of proving what he advances on this subject; and indeed his candour is always so conspicuous, that we scarcely ever find him make the least animadversion, which is not entirely just, and conformable to sound observation.

On the continent, he says, they entertain high ideas of the great encouragement given in England to learning, and to those who cultivate the sciences, or are friends and admirers of the Muses; but he is convinced that this opinion is carried far beyond the truth.

There are, undoubtedly, says he, encouragements to learning and its pursuits, which are held out by church and state; but they are precarious, and the rewards too often shared among those, who, notwithstanding their pretensions, ought to be called illiterate. It is commonly the whole public taken together, which acts the part of a Mæcenas, and not only praises, but sometimes

amply rewards, the man of learning for his works, his talents, and his application ; or the ingenious artist for the productions of his genius and his industry. The pension list of government is long, and very expensive to the nation ; but I believe that very few names of persons, eminent for learning and abilities, are to be found upon it ; and they are, perhaps, only kept in pay for some state purposes. The great, the nobles, the rich, spend and squander away great sums of money ; but very few can spare any thing for the encouragement of arts and sciences, except it were for the sake of personal praise, or for superficial amusement. The gaming-table, horse-racing, a favourite female, and an ostentatious way of living, require so much, that little or nothing is left to encourage the scholar or the artist ; and those, who by trade and commerce do all they can to enrich themselves, are, if not ignorant, at least too fond of their money ; and will lay out none, but for the sake of interest and profit, or to gratify pride and ostentation.'

Dr. Wendeborn observes, that the liberty of the press has much increased in England within these twenty years. When he first came hither, the parliamentary debates were printed and published with precaution. The Magazines gave them under the fictitious denomination of a Robin-Hood, or Debating-Club, and the names of the speakers were much disguised. At present it is quite different. The public papers give the debates at large, and the names of the speakers not only at full length, but even sometimes with severe remarks.

As there is no previous examination, by authority, of books and printing, so there is none of copper-plates and engraving. Our author observes, that the most satirical and the most laughable caricatures are published, and publicly exposed for sale ; as are also very immoral and indecent prints, which offend modesty and virtue. That they have bad effects upon the minds of young people, there can be no doubt ; and he justly remarks, it reflects no honour on the London police, that it is so remiss in prosecuting such violations of decency. This observation cannot be too much inculcated to those who are empowered to take cognizance of such an offence.

It affords us satisfaction to find that this judicious author expresses himself much better pleased with the plan of the English reviewers than with that which prevails in Germany. We shall not give any detail of his observations on this subject, but they discover good sense, and much attention to useful enquiry.

Our author, amidst his remarks on the English language, has introduced some observations on the German, which, as they

they differ from the generally-received opinion, and proceed from a writer so intelligent, as well as apparently unprejudiced, we shall give them a place in our Review.

‘ The English language, in my ears, has not that harmony and softness, which are found in some other languages. Even our German, which so often, by those who do not know better, is called a rough and barbarous tongue, has, in my opinion, prejudiced as it may appear, more harmony to boast of, when it is pronounced in one of our best dialects, and is more melodious than the English. A modern English traveller, who is acknowledged to be one of the best judges in matters of sound and melody, though he makes no comparison between the English and the German, yet, he owns, that when he heard German singing for the first time, he was astonished to find that the German language, in spite of all its clashing consonants and gutturals, as he expresses himself, is better calculated for music than the French. And in another place he says, he was confirmed in his opinion, that, except the Italian, the German manner of singing is less vicious and less vulgar than that of any other people in Europe. This could hardly be the case, if the language was not well adapted for music, and was as barbarous as many, who are unacquainted with it, think it to be.’

Of the English language, our author thinks, that though it has not that which most pleases the ear, it possesses, nevertheless, many advantages beyond others. Being very copious, as a selection from many languages, it is nervous and expressive; it is well adapted for reasoning, though not for declamation; it speaks to the understanding with energy, but it will not charm the ear with melody, or beauties derived from sound and harmony. On account of its conciseness and brevity of expression, he thinks it is well adapted for epigram. These remarks, in general, appear to be well founded; but from the long experience we have had, with respect both to writings and speeches, we must be of opinion that the English language is by no means so little calculated for declamation, as this ingenious author seems to think.

Dr. Wendeborn justly observes, that in England, the pronunciation of the Latin is so different from that which prevails in all other countries, that it can be of no use in conversation between an Englishman and a foreigner, unless one of them could accommodate himself to the pronunciation of the other. Of the truth of this remark, he gives us the following pleasant instance.

‘ I remember that the late Dr. Gregory Sharpe, who, in his younger years, had resided a good while in the university of Leipzig, mentioned to me a pleasant incident which happened to a German gentleman, who, on coming over to England, had been recommended to him. He wanted to introduce him to an English gentleman of learning, who, on finding that the foreigner understood English but very imperfectly, attempted to address him in Latin. It being then only a few months after the peace of Hubertsburg had been concluded, one of the first questions he asked was, *Suntne nunc omnia pacata in Germania?* The other not being used to the English pronunciation, understood *peccata* for *pacata*: and, taking it for a sneer upon his country, replied with some warmth, *Sunt quidem multa peccata in Germania, sed spero plures virtutes.* Dr. Sharpe told me, that he had at first some trouble to bring them to a right apprehension of each other's meaning.’

Our author makes the same remark on the English pronunciation of the Greek, which he had before done on that of the Latin. Yet, he tells us, he has met with some Englishmen who seriously contended, that their pronunciation was the true one, the same which was in use among the ancient Greeks.

‘ It is not worth while, says he, seriously to refute an opinion of this kind, when the modern Greeks, with several of whom, and from various parts of Greece, I have conversed, pronounce it exactly as we do. All other learned nations in Europe, in pronouncing the Greek and Latin, differ from the English, who, incontestibly, have adopted a pronunciation of the Latin and Greek vowels, similar to that which is in use in their own language. The Scotch, by pronouncing the vowels broader, and being used to gutturals, approach of course more nearly to that pronunciation, which prevails on the continent.’

We entirely agree with our author in these observations, except in what relates to the pronunciation of the modern Greeks. For we have been assured by a native of that country, and who is likewise a literary man, that the modern Greeks pronounce several letters of the alphabet, particularly Beta and Gamma, very differently from the people of any other nation. Their pronunciation of the former of those letters is a mixture of the dental and labial; and that of the latter extremely guttural. The gentleman infers, that the pronunciation of the ancient Greeks must have been the same with that of the modern; but it is impossible to admit this conclusion, without giving up every claim of the ancient Greek to that softness and harmony which is generally, and, we must

must be of opinion, justly ascribed to it. One of the smoothest lines in Homer, read in the dialect of a modern Greek, would sound extremely barbarous in any polished ear.

From treating of the language, our author proceeds to the professions of the sciences in England, on which he makes many just observations. He observes that Bayle's Dictionary has been the means of introducing into England a great taste for biography. At present, says he, hardly a person of any note in society, or an author little above mediocrity, can depart this life, or a criminal of some notoriety be executed, but he has instantly more than one biographer, who wishes to edify the survivors by writing his life in a magazine, a pamphlet, or even a whole volume.

Our author, notwithstanding the usual justness of his sentiments, appears to have strongly imbibed the prejudices of Dr. Johnson respecting the poems of Ossian.—From the testimony adduced by Dr. Blair, and other collateral, to which we might add personal, authorities, we are convinced that the originals of Ossian's poems are of high antiquity. It is beyond all doubt that they are not the productions of the present age. As the poems of Ossian had never before been collected, it is possible that, by oral transmission, in the course of many hundred years, variations and defects might be introduced, which, in the arrangement of the whole, it would be necessary to alter or supply. This is a freedom which cannot justly be denied to any editor in similar circumstances; and it is all which, considering the evidence produced for the authenticity of Ossian's Poems, we can suppose Mr. Macpherson to have used.

Dr. Wendeborn next gives an account of the Royal Society of London, the Society of Antiquaries, the Royal Society of Edinburgh, schools, and universities. After these he proceeds to the state of the arts in England, particularly painting, engraving, sculpture, architecture, gardening, and music, to which is added the stage. Of all these he gives a faithful account, and makes, we think, pertinent observations.

The last part of the present volume comprises the state of religion, in which the author takes a view, not only of the established church, but a variety of sects distinct from it. The subjects mentioned under this head, after the episcopal church, are, methodists, toleration, dissenters in general, presbyterians, the church of Scotland, Sandemanians, Independents, Baptists and Sabbitarians, Antinomians, Unitarians, Arians, Socinians, Arminians, Quakers, Roman-catholics, Moravians, Jews, Atheists, Sceptics, Indifferentists, and Deists.

We cannot conclude our account of this work without acknowledging that we have perused it with much satisfaction. On a multitude of interesting subjects, of which it treats, the author discovers both extensive enquiry and judicious observation. He seems to write with perfect freedom from every national prejudice; and while the character he gives of this country is, on the whole, highly favourable, we never find it tinged, either with flattery, on one hand, or, on the other, with satirical censure.——We must add, that the translation, if we except a few trivial instances, is executed in a manner which might do credit even to a native of this country.

The History of the Bastille: with a concise Account of the late Revolution in France. To which is added, An Appendix, containing, among other Particulars, an Enquiry into the History of the Prisoner with the Mask. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell. 1790.

THIS celebrated prison, the terrors of which now no longer overawe the spirit and liberties of the French, was begun in the reign of Charles the Fifth, by Hugh d'Aubriot, mayor of Paris, who laid the first stone of it on the twenty-second of April, 1370. Originally, the Bastille consisted only of two round towers, one on each side of the road leading to Paris from the suburbs of St. Anthony. They were joined together with a high and strong wall, in the centre of which was the gate of the town. Some years afterwards two other towers were built opposite to the two first; and there is reason to think that the road continued in the same line, as a gate was found walled up between those towers, corresponding with the other gate. Under Charles the Sixth, four more towers were added, and joined together by prodigiously thick walls, measuring on the inside eighty feet above the level of the court. The road was then turned off to the right of the building; the former gates were shut up, and a new one made between the towers. At the same time, the whole building was inclosed with a broad ditch, having a counterescarp in masonry, nearly thirty-six feet high from the bottom. About the middle of the seventeenth century, other fortifications were added, which were afterwards converted into a garden. The ditch was dry, except during the floods of the Seine, when the water rose in it, but not to any great height. Besides those above-mentioned, some other buildings were afterwards erected at different periods.

The usual entry to the Bastille was from the street St. Anthony.

thony. Over the first gate was an armoury. To the right of the entrance was a guard-room. In the first inclosure were barracks for the garrison, coach-houses and stables for the governor and officers, and shops for fustlers. A gate led thence to the arsenal. The way into the second inclosure was by a draw-bridge. On the left in entering was a guard-room, and on the right the governor's house. At the end of this court was a terrace, with rows of trees and a pavillion. The end of the terrace farthest from the castle was closed by an iron railing, which separated it from the garden of the arsenal. On the right in going to the castle, were the kitchens and their offices, erected on a kind of blind bridge thrown across the ditch. The passage into the castle was by a draw-bridge; within the gate on the right was a guard-room. The first court was 102 feet long, and 72 broad, with six towers. The court was terminated by a modern building, on the ground-floor of which was the council-chamber, the library, and some lodging rooms. The upper stories contained accommodations for the lieutenant de roi, the major, surgeon, and other officers. The rest of the edifice consisted of apartments for prisoners of distinction.

The second court was 72 feet long, and 42 broad; the length running parallel with the breadth of the other. At the two extreme angles were towers; and between them, lodgings for persons belonging to the castle.

In the first court, says our author, was the clock that marked the heavy hours to the solitary and unhappy prisoners. It was once decorated with two statues of men in chains, as if intended by cruelty to insult wretchedness; but these ill-imagined ornaments were removed by order of the baron de Breteuil, at the time when he was minister of Paris.

The tops of the towers, and of the curtains that joined them, were flat, with a parapet wall; and on the towers some pieces of cannon were mounted.

The entrances to the towers were secured by double doors of oak, near three inches thick. In each tower was a winding staircase, which descended to a dungeon below, and led likewise to the rooms above it. The roof of the dungeon was about the level of the court, and the floor of it considerably above that of the ditch. Those dungeons were arched, paved, and lined with stone. Most of them had a slit towards the ditch, that let in air, and a very small degree of light. It is said they were intended as places of temporary punishment for prisoners who attempted to make their escape; and it seems by all the enquiries which could be made, that they were only used on some very particular occasions. It was in these dungeons that the unfortunate princes of Armagnac, sons of

James

James who was beheaded, were confined by Lewis XI. The eldest lost his senses in prison; the youngest obtained his liberty, after the death of the tyrant, by one of the first steps taken under the reign of his successor, Charles VIII. In a memorial written by that prince of Armagnac in 1483, he relates sufferings which now almost exceed belief, though they were at that time fully credited.

Above the dungeons were four stories, containing each a single room. Some rooms indeed had a small dark closet adjoining to them, made in the thickness of the wall. The three first stories were irregular polygons of about eighteen feet diameter, and as many high. The walls were strongly built of stone and mortar. They were near seven English feet thick at the top, and the thickness gradually increased towards the foundation. The rooms had but one window each, with an iron grate, extremely strong, near the surface of the wall without, and another about the centre of its thickness. A glass-window, made in the manner of a door, opened inward. In some rooms the embrasure of the window came down to the level of the floor; in others there were steps that went up to it, and in many it was high enough to enable a person to walk forward to the window with ease. The windows of the lower story were built half way up with stone and mortar, or had planks fixed to that height on the outward grate, to prevent the prisoners from being seen by any one from without.

All the rooms, except the dungeons, had a fire-place, or stove; and the vents of the chimneys were secured by strong iron grates placed at certain distances from each other. The walls and ceilings were plastered and white-washed. Some floors were laid with tiles, and others with stone, in the manner of most of the anti-chambers in Paris.

The furniture of the rooms in general consisted of a small bed with green serge curtains, a table, an armed-chair, a basin and ewer, a large earthen pot to hold water, a brass candlestick, a chamber-pot, a night-stool, a tin goblet, a broom, and a tinder-box and matches. For prisoners of high rank there were apartments furnished with greater care.

The doors of the rooms were double, and with as many locks and bars as those that shut the entrances to the towers. Many of the rooms had double ceilings; one of lath and plaster, and at some distance another of oak, which supported the floor of the room above it.

Different authors who have written on the Bastille have mentioned cages of iron for confining prisoners, and instruments for putting them to the torture; but the author of the present work informs us, that no such instruments were found,

nor any traces of them discovered, either by the persons who examined the place when it was entire, or by the architects who superintended its demolition.

Besides the above-mentioned rooms, there were others in the curtains between the towers; in which the records of the place, and other books and papers of importance, were deposited.

The library of the Bastile is said to have been founded about the beginning of the present century, by a prisoner who had been long confined there, and to have been augmented by some of his successors. It contained about five hundred volumes, of which the prisoners were generally allowed the use; but those who were not indulged with the liberty of going thither, depended on their keepers for the choice of their books. We are told, that scarcely any of the books were entire; some prisoners having written in them what was thought improper to be seen by others.

Towards the bottom of the first court, was the chapel. One mass was said there every morning, and three masses on the holidays and Sundays. There were six covered niches for as many prisoners, where they could hear without seeing or being seen. Those who went to mass were separately conducted to their places, and taken back to their rooms, if there happened to be many prisoners, they performed their public devotions by rotation.

Our author afterwards recites the official arrangements of the Bastile, and the regulations which were to be observed. Some prisoners, we are told, had permission to walk on the top of the castle, and in one of the gardens; but this indulgence was seldom granted. The idea which was entertained, that prisoners were sometimes privately put to death, seems, according to our author, to be entirely a popular prejudice. A skeleton that was brought out when the place was taken, confirmed the current opinion; but, says the author of the narrative, a moment's reflection was sufficient to convince any one, that if so detestable a crime had been committed, the body would have been interred; and it afterwards appeared, that the skeleton had been brought thither by the surgeon, for his studies in anatomy.

The author afterwards gives an account of prisoners who have been confined at the Bastile; beginning with the earliest registers found there, many of which were deposited in the Lyceum; but noticing only the imprisonment of such as have reference to the temper of the times.

Among these we find in 1680, the mareschal de Luxembourg, who surrendered himself to the governor by the order of the king. He had been involved in an information given
against

against a woman named La Voisin, who pretended to foretell events, sold poisons, and was burnt on the twenty-second of February, 1680.

Joseph Jarin, or Jarine, a footman of the Venetian ambassador, for having said in an antichamber at Versailles, amongst a number of other servants, "Who can hinder me from killing the king?"

Louisa Simon, a widow, who pretended to tell fortunes, to have secrets for inspiring love, and to be able to make marriages.

We find one priest committed to the Bastile for debauchery. In general, the causes of imprisonment relate either to affairs of state, or of religion.

The account of the Bastile is followed with a history of the late revolution in France, with which, it may be presumed, our readers are sufficiently well acquainted.

In a large Appendix, a particular account is given of the more conspicuous persons, who have, at different times, been committed to the Bastile. In this number is the prisoner with the masque, concerning whom many opinions have been formed. The author, after reciting all that has been said on the subject, still leaves the question undetermined. That the prisoner was a person of very superior birth, and thought to be of the highest importance, seems to him very evident; but no good argument can be found to support the opinion, that he was a character unknown to the world before his confinement.

Introduction to the Knowledge of Germany. Containing Enquiries into the Disposition and Manners, peculiar Habits and Customs, of the distinct Classes of Society, &c. &c. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Hookham. 1789.

THE author of this volume sets out with reciting the opinions of Tacitus, Bouhours, and Dacier, concerning the capacity of the Germans, and the northern people of Europe. All the writers now mentioned seem to undervalue the intellectual merit of those nations; and the two last have not scrupled to treat their character even with a degree of impertinence. But, as the author now before us justly observes, the variety of ingenious productions that appeared in Germany, long before the days of these two French writers, make it evident, that Bouhours was no better acquainted with the merit of the Germans, than Dacier with that of the English, to whom he is extremely illiberal, as well as unjust, in his national remarks. The truth is, that the Germans, for several ages, have made a very conspicuous figure in the republic of letters.

‘ Of late years, says our author, they have considerably improved their own tongue; which is bold, manly, and copious. In natural and epic poetry they have produced compositions of prime merit. The names of a Brocks, a Kleist, a Klopstock, and a Gessner, are abundantly sufficient, without adducing any others, to rescue them from an imputation of a defect of genius. The translation of many of their works into the languages of the principal nations in Europe, and the applause with which they are universally read, are incontestable proofs of their superior excellence.’

The French have likewise asserted that the Germans are slow of apprehension, and heavy in their proceedings. But the present author answers, in behalf of the Germans, that they are usually very solicitous thoroughly to comprehend what they go about, and more intent to secure success by labour and diligence, than willing to risque it by hurry and precipitation. This, he observes, produces a habit of deliberation, which renders the Germans less liable to be actuated by violence and temerity in their resolutions, than many of those who boast so highly of the superiority of their talents. The frankness and hospitality of the Germans, with the social intercourse among their princes, the author places in an amiable light; shewing, at the same time, the ostentatiousness of the German courts, with instances of its pernicious effects; and that the German princes were formerly much addicted to literature.

The author maintains that Germany is a country very favourable to men of active and aspiring dispositions; and that the polite arts are remarkably patronized by many of the German princes; but he acknowledges that, in general, the people are addicted to hard drinking. The following extract contains, we think, a faithful delineation of the German character in some of its prominent features.

‘ The politer sort of people in Germany, are frequently not much less guilty of intemperance in their cups than the lower—a vice unhappily too general among all conditions and degrees. Both high and low are almost equally addicted to it. Even the literati, who, in most other countries, are professed votaries of sobriety, cannot, in this drinking region, resist the torrent of example.

‘ These latter form a numerous body in Germany, where that species of learning, which consists in a superficial acquaintance with, and inelegant use of the Latin tongue, is common, and diffused throughout the lowest stations.

‘ The fact is, that Germany is in a manner overrun with what the world is usually pleased to term scholars; most of whom would undoubtedly have made a much more advantageous figure, and have been of more utility to the community, as well as to themselves, in any other situation whatsoever.

‘ This

• This inundation of scholarship, if one may so express it, proceeds from the facility of receiving a classical education, and the consequent unaptitude, or rather unwillingness, in most individuals, to apply themselves to any calling of a different cast, after having expended the prime of life in academical studies, and contracted, through length of time, that peculiar habit of mind which they occasion.

• Hence no country is more largely stocked with authors, or, to speak with more propriety, with dealers in bookish knowledge; men whose voluminous compilations may not improperly be considered as immense magazines of erudition, collected for the use of persons of genius, as labourers prepare materials to be employed under the direction of artists.

• It is, indeed, highly deserving of observation, that no country in Europe contains so many universities as Germany, amounting to near forty; and that with so many helps, the natives, though forming incomparably the most populous nation in Europe, have hitherto exhibited none of those superior specimens of wit that have been produced in other countries.

• France, Italy, Spain, and England, have given to the world some compositions of the first-rate merit in the line of original genius, while those of Germany are yet to come.

• Such as have appeared of late years, though excellent in their kind, cannot, however, be classed with the great productions of the above mentioned people, and claim evidently but a second place in the opinion of all the rest of Europe.

• But the very great ardour with which the Germans now cultivate their language, promises that, in due time, it will also afford its share of masterpieces. The long neglect to which it has been condemned for ages, and the sole use of the Latin tongue by the literati during that period, stifled the exertions to bring it forward, which were occasionally made. Better hopes are now entertained from the emulation with which the Germans have perused the performances of those modern nations that have flourished in literature. The progress already made leaves no doubt of their becoming at last no less successful in the same career.

• The Germans are great readers, and there is no nation upon earth more capable of, and more addicted to, the most intense application. Hence they have always remarkably succeeded in those studies that require much labour and patience, and in those profound disquisitions wherein there is more exercise for the judgment than the imagination. They excel in mathematics and in experimental learning, such as physic, botany, chymistry, and in all the numerous branches of natural philosophy.

• Nor are they less eminent in jurisprudence and the knowledge of civil law. Herein they are the most conversant of all the Europeans.

peans, and have shone more conspicuously than any modern nation since the decline of the Roman empire.

In the science of history and antiquity they yield to no people, and especially in the composition of laborious comments upon classical authors, in the elucidation of whom their industry and patience are indefatigable.

On the whole, our author describes the character of the Germans with great justness; in some observations, perhaps, he betrays a degree of partiality; but from the picture he draws, and which we think cannot easily be taxed with misrepresentation, they appear, as we have always considered them, an intelligent, well-disposed, industrious, benevolent, and respectable people.

A Treatise on Practical Astronomy. By the Rev. S. Vince, A. M. F. R. S. 4to. 7s. sewed. Cadell. 1790.

WE find it difficult to give an adequate idea of this treatise; for its merits depend on minute and accurate calculation, which of all other subjects we find it most difficult to abridge, or of descriptions illustrated by plates. This is, however, a work of considerable labour, great accuracy, and extensive information. If, therefore, we seem to pass over the volume before us more cursorily than it may appear to deserve, the author will, we trust, attribute it to the difficulties we necessarily feel of conveying a full, and at the same time an intelligible account. The former would be of little service without the latter.

A Treatise of Practical Astronomy is of great importance at this period, when instruments of very great powers, and of a complicated structure, are so frequently employed: its appearance in this country will render it more valuable, as the English artists are at present unrivalled in this department; and our author acknowledges his obligations to Mr. Ramsden for the latest communications of the different improvements. The information has been usually derived on this subject from treatises on optics; and we may be allowed to express our regret that this branch of philosophy has not been explained in a scientific form, since so many discoveries have been added to it. The last work, and it is one which deserves much more attention than it has received, was Dr. Priestley's history of this science, if we except what was the object of Mr. Nicholson's attention in his more general system of philosophy. In the systems of astronomy the instruments are commonly mentioned, but independent of the many additions to, and improvements of, the astronomical apparatus, we know no work in

which the science is practically considered in a very extensive or accurate view, but in M. de la Lande's copious system, which is comprised in four thick quarto volumes: perhaps its size, and till lately its unfinished state, have prevented what it well merits, an English dress.

Mr. Vince begins with describing the most useful part of the apparatus; the Nonius, or as it is now commonly styled the Vernier; either name is that of its supposed inventor at different periods; but the invention at present is exclusively attributed to Pierre Vernier. It is a scale most minutely graduated, commonly in the subdivisions of the smallest divisions of the principal scale, and as the Vernier is moveable, it is successively applied to those divisions which the observer is examining. Our author describes the Vernier more scientifically, as generally employed in different instruments; but the subdivisions on the moveable scale, usually adapted to the scale of a common barometer, will give a sufficiently correct idea of this most useful subsidiary instrument.

Hadley's quadrant is an instrument of such general utility, that it justly claims our author's first attention. About ten years after the publication of this invention, a paper was said to be found in sir Isaac Newton's own hand-writing, among Dr. Halley's papers, containing a figure and a description of an instrument not very different from Hadley's. Sir Isaac appears, therefore, to claim the priority, without injuring the credit or ingenuity of Mr. Hadley, who probably knew nothing of sir Isaac Newton's attempt: indeed it seems to have been little more; but even the idea of an instrument so important would almost confer immortality on any one. It is now generally known and employed by common seamen, but its utility in ascertaining the longitude by means of the lunar tables Hadley could not have suspected. The quadrant is employed for measuring the angular distance of objects in any situation, even while the observer is subject to the unsteady motion of a ship: it is so well known that we need not stay to explain its principles. Our author adds to a very minute and correct explanation of the instrument, the most accurate directions for adjusting it, and correcting any errors, with different examples of its various and extensive uses, particularly of its utility in discovering the longitude by the moon's distance from the sun or a fixed star.

* This method of finding the longitude was proposed by Dr. Halley and brought into practice by Dr. Maskelyne, who, by his indefatigable zeal in thus executing the duties of his office, instituted for that purpose, and by his various improvements in the knowledge and practice of optics and astronomy, has filled the im-

portant and honourable situation in which he is placed, with so much credit to himself and advantage to the public. To facilitate the operations he planned and computed the nautical almanac, by means of which the calculations are rendered very short, and the precepts extremely simple and easy of application; and from his own experience in two voyages, one to St. Helena and the other to Barbadoes, he fully established the utility of the method on the following irrefragable proofs. 1. On the near agreement of the longitude inferred by his observations made within a few days or hours of making land with the known longitude of such land. 2. From the near agreement of the longitude of the ship from observations made on a great many different days near to one another, when connected together by the help of the common reckoning. 3. From the near agreement of the longitudes of the ship, deduced from observations of stars on different sides of the moon, taken on the same night. For here all the most probable kinds of error, whether arising from a faulty division of the limb of the instrument, a refraction of the speculums or dark glasses, a wrong allowance for the error of adjustment, or from a bad habit of estimating the contact of the star with the moon's limb, operating different ways, their effect, if any, must be immediately discovered. But in all the double longitudes thus determined, the difference was so small as to warrant him to say, that by good instruments and careful observers, these errors may be so far reduced as to be of very little consequence; and all the observations which have been made since, agree in confirming it; and show that the longitude thus deduced may be determined to a very great degree of accuracy, and fully sufficient for all nautical purposes.'

The wires in telescopes are minute divisions of the field of view, to ascertain and describe with accuracy the different parts of the field. For different purposes, the wires are parallel or cross each other, at right or acute angles. The systems of wires are particularly useful in examining the place of those heavenly bodies whose motion is irregular, when in the field of view, at the same time with those which are fixed or have a more regular determined motion.

The transit instrument differs little in its construction from a common telescope, except that it has but one convex eye-glass, from which the only inconvenience resulting is, that objects are inverted. In its motion it describes a portion of a great circle from the pole to the zenith, and is designed to take the right ascension of the different heavenly bodies, and to correct the going of the clock, for which purpose it is furnished with a system of wires. Perhaps the following improvement is not generally known, and it may be understood without the plate,

Instead of illuminating the wires in the common method by a small reflector beyond the object glass, which reflects light (coming from a lamp) down into the tube, Mr. Ramsden makes the axis, about which the telescope turns, hollow, and open at one end, against which he places the lamp; then within the telescope, directly against the lamp, he places a plane reflector at an angle of 45° with the axis of the telescope, which reflector has a hole cut in the middle so large that no rays passing through the telescope, to form the image of the object are intercepted. This method has several material advantages; for the lamp never wants to have its position altered, which it does in the common method, and which takes some time before you can get the proper light; and moreover, when the lamp is brought near to the object glass, the heated air rises through the slit in the observatory through which the visual rays come, which makes the object appear as if seen through smok or troubled water, so that an observation near the pole (where the motion of the stars is very slow) will be rendered dubious for some seconds; but here the lamp is at a considerable distance, and the smok goes through another place. Also, as different observations require different degrees of illumination, he places two prisms between the lamp and the hollow end of the axis about which the telescope turns; one is of white and the other of green glass, with the thick part of one against the thin part of the other; these prisms are moveable, so that the light going from the lamp may be made to pass through a thicker or thinner part of them, by which means you may adjust the degree of illumination as accurately as you please.

The great utility of the right ascension is, to know at what time any star or planet comes to the meridian, and to determine the order in which the heavenly bodies pass the meridian.

The astronomical quadrant, which is often fixed against a wall on account of its great weight, and then called a mural quadrant, is designed to take the altitudes of the heavenly bodies above the horizon. If the latitude of the place is previously known or found, their declinations are discovered; and from their right ascensions, which are known by means of the transit telescope, their place in the heavens is determined. As usual, our author describes the instrument, the method of adjusting it, the use, and what is of great importance, the means of ascertaining the accuracy of the divisions, and the regularity of the arc.

Of the micrometer, an instrument adapted to the telescope, in order to measure the angular distance of the objects that may appear at the same time in its field, or to measure the apparent diameters of the heavenly bodies, and ultimately employed to ascertain the distances of bodies more remote from each

each other, our author gives a history comprehending the various contrivances for these purposes from the time of Huygens. We cannot abridge this account, but the ingenuity displayed in this attempt, forms a very interesting picture of the efforts and powers of the human mind. The principle of this instrument is, the comparing known angles and diameters contained in the telescope with those of the heavenly bodies observed.

The micrometer is useless when the known fixed star, from its difference of declination exceeds the field of view, for that instrument can only be applied to those stars which pass through the field when the telescope is fixed. The instrument employed to obviate the inconveniency when the known star is at a distance, may be styled the æquatorial sector, or the astronomical sector. The principle of this instrument consists in measuring the difference of declination of two stars by a telescope moving on a pivot, over an arc of a given length, which of course is the limit of the use of this instrument. The latest and most convenient sector of this kind was constructed under the direction of Dr. Maskelyne. The adjustment and application follow, particularly the method of employing the astronomical sector as a parallactic instrument. The zenith sector is designed to measure small angles near the zenith with greater accuracy than a quadrant. It was first made by Dr. Hook, with a design of determining the annual parallax of the fixed stars if it could be ascertained. To Dr. Bradley's improvement of this instrument we are indebted for his discoveries of the aberration of light in the fixed stars, and the nutation of the earth's axis.

The æquatorial instrument is a telescope fitted up with various additions for different purposes. It is employed to find the latitude of a place, to determine the position of the meridian, and the apparent time of the day; to find a star or planet in the day-time, the right ascension and declination of any star, to find the longitude, and measure horizontal angles.

Mr. Ramsden's new instrument for measuring horizontal angles is next described, invented and constructed for the late plan of ascertaining the precise longitudes of the observatories of Paris and Greenwich. This description, and that which follows, of Mr. Ramsden's new circular instrument (because its limb is a circle not a quadrant) to lessen or remove even the minute errors of the mural quadrant, are new, and of the greatest importance.

The volume concludes with some directions to the young observer in using the common telescope, and on the utility of interpolations in astronomy. On the whole, we think this a very valuable and a very accurate work, and its value is increased by a number of useful tables in the Appendix. The

calculations are sometimes intricate ; but little more than the elements of algebra, of plane and spherical trigonometry, seem to require.

The Laurel of Liberty. A Poem. By Robert Merry, A. M.
4to. 3s. 6d. Bell. 1790.

MR. Merry enters into the full spirit of the French Revolution, and dedicates his poem to the national assembly. Willing to inspect the progress of their glorious undertaking, he flew to Paris, and ‘felt his heart beat with transport (as he supposes every Englishman’s must at such a juncture) on finding himself in a new land of liberty.’ Nothing exceptionable appeared to him in its system of reformation. The disorder of the national assembly was the result of zeal; its *impetuosity*, an energy that sprung from its love of freedom. He could almost venture to predict, that the counter-revolution projected by the Aristocrats, would prove vain and ineffectual, though ‘the united tyrants of the world united in a kind of political crusade’ against the cause of freedom. Predictions of a different kind, founded possibly on stronger reasons, have been announced for a long time by great numbers of our political prognosticators. Whatever turn, however, affairs may take, we have little doubt, and our heart unites with our opinion, that the more exceptionable privileges of the king and the nobility are abolished for ever.

Mr. Merry expresses some apprehension in regard to the freedom with which he avows his sentiments.

‘While I suffer this work to go forth, I feel anxiety, not only on account of its numerous defects, but also, that through the possible degradation of the British press there may arise some inconvenience from uttering the common sentiments of justice, liberty, and humanity. “*κοσμον η σιχη φερει.*” Yet the love I bear to truth operates upon my mind with greater force than the dread of an overstrained authority, or the secret machinations of inveterate malevolence.’

We confess that we have no conception of any danger that can result to him from delivering any speculative opinions relative to the French Revolution, and consequently may not have an adequate idea of his spirit and resolution in thus braving the *powerful* and the *malevolent*. He certainly delivers them with great freedom; yet he says nothing but what has been before repeated in plain prose:—for instance—

‘Compatriot trav’lers o’er life’s barren heath,
Who draw with me coteremporary breath,

For whom, affection's dewy vapours rise,
 For whom, my bosom heaves foreboding sighs;
 If slowly ling'ring in your heart's best veins,
 One drop of public spirit yet remains,
 If what your martyr'd fathers bought so dear,
 Ye still at least in mem'ry can revere,
 Rouse from your apathy, and boldly dare
 Examine what you have been,—may be,—are!
 But if abash'd, and stricken with dismay
 Ye wish to chase each painful thought away,
 That brings dejection,—turn to France and see
Four million men in arms, for liberty!

Such language as this, however extraordinary, has echoed from the pulpit; and issued from the press; and the rant of a poet is more excusable than that of the moralist and the divine. Our subsequent quotation will enable the reader to judge more fully of Mr. Merry's political opinions, and to appreciate his poetical abilities. The address to Mr. Burke is manly and liberal; but that liberality does not extend to the French nobility and ministry. We mean not to vindicate their general character, but surely the anathema is too violent and unqualified. It requires no moderate degree of prejudice to suppose that *every* nobleman of France tyrannized over his inferiors; and that the 'lantern's cord' and 'people's rage' was but a 'trifling evil,' compared with the 'dungeons, the cannon, and the sword of their ministry.' What is meant by the *cannon* and *sword* we know not; and are fully persuaded that more 'innocent victims,' called by Mr. Merry with no great propriety 'murd'rous traitors,' were sacrificed to the fury of the revolutionists in October last, than have suffered death, or even 'the racking wheel,' in all France, innocent and guilty included, by means of the 'vengeful ministers' and tyrannous aristocrats, since the days of Lewis the XIVth to the present time.

'And could'st thou wonder lib'ral *Burke*! to see
 Revenge lead on the steps of liberty:
 Could men yet smarting with the tyrant's stroke,
 Forgive the tribe that bow'd them to the yoke,
 Forget, how oft the pittance, from their hands
 Was torn, by *each* relentless lord's commands;
 Condemn'd almost to starve, where plenty reign'd,
 And those were criminals who e'er complain'd?
 O could'st thou wonder when th' explosion came,
 Which burst the *o'ercharg'd culverin* of shame,
 That ev'ry suff'rer starting to new life,
 Against his proud oppressor bared the knife,

That palaces were rifled, villains bled,
 And many a murd'rous traitor lost his head ?
 Sure manly *moralist* ! a soul like thine,
 Where all the nobler qualities combine,
 Where virtue rises from its purest source,
 And learning gives true genius double force ;
 Sure such a soul must own, the lantern's cord,
 Compar'd to dungeons, cannon, and the sword,
 Was but a trifling ill, the *people's* rage
 A moment rous'd, a moment could assuage,
 But vengeful *ministers* no pity feel,
 They bring their direst chain, their racking wheel,
 Doom their sad victims length'ning pangs to share,
 And even think it mercy when they spare !

Such exaggerated censure as this, and encomiums elsewhere equally exaggerated on the democratic party, must, like an 'overcharg'd culverin,' fail of the intended effect. The metaphor in the four succeeding lines is highly exceptionable. Theory compared to a 'rapid tide,' is not a very happy idea ; but we can have none of a tide's flowing without a precedent. — '*Labitur & labetur in omne volubilis ævum.*' — The impulse likewise of a *vast* and *wild* tide, is the last circumstance in nature that we should suspect of giving stability to any thing.

'What tho', too rapid now may seem to be
 The *unexampled* tide of theory,
 Too *wild* the impulse, and too *vast* the range,
 To settle strong security from change ;
 Not long shall *France* by struggling tumults rent,
 Smart with the wounds of secret discontent ;
 Awhile, perhaps, may trouble and distress
 Defile her lilies, and her pride depress ;
 Surrounding *Neros* herds of hirelings lead
 To force the friends of human kind to bleed ;
 Yet 'gainst the gen'ral good, so just, so plain,
Brinsleys might write, and monarchs rage in vain ;
 Not *Erskine's* eloquence could here avail,
 And e'en young *Ammon's* armies all would fail. —
 But soon shall truth with industry's best wealth,
 Give to the social body moral health ;
 Till hearts expanding with encreasing store,
 Gain from each gain, a gen'rous feeling more :
 Till modest merit be by all confest,
 And those be valued most who are the best.
 While there unknown to the whole world beside,
 Shall public int'rest fix on honour's pride !

‘ See, see, already, o’er her mild domain,
The softer charities begin to reign,
No *virgins* now secluded from the arms
Of sighing love, shall mourn their useless charms,
Doze out their years by slumb’rous grief oppress’d,
Or strain cold relics to the burning breast.
No ghastly monks their *horrid sabbaths* hold,
That sense may sink, and reason be controul’d;
But new exertion wakes to fair desire,
And owns what nature’s noblest laws require.
With polish’d manners polish’d minds agree,
For pure politeness is philanthropy!
Her sons, unshackled, a new warmth impart,
And learn to give the *welcome of the heart*.’

Though some of these signs seem almost to announce that an *annus mirabilis*, or the millenium, is already begun in France, we confess ourselves hardened infidels in regard to the commencement of this golden age so confidently predicted. Instead of beholding, as in the prophetic vision of old, ‘righteousness and peace kissing each other,’ images of discord and confusion, aiming the dagger at each other’s throat, rise before our view.—It is said, that the *gift of second sight* is considered by the Highlanders as a disadvantage, and we can assure Mr. Merry that such a mental prospect adds not to the comfort of a peaceable Reviewer. We wish that France as well as England (for we cannot conceive that our country is in so deplorable a state as our author and some philosophical politicians consider it) may enjoy the blessings that result from such rational liberty as is consistent with law and government. We are indeed of a very different way of thinking from those democratical zealots who pant for anarchy and confusion, that a new and more beautiful order of things may arise from the general ruin. We would rather repair our mansion-house than level it with the dust, because every apartment was not exactly to our taste, and adjusted with mathematical exactness and precision; and till we see other nations, in different political circumstances, more respected abroad and more happy at home, we shall prefer our form of government, as by law established, with all its defects, to the Utopian schemes and visionary prospects of republican innovators and theoretical statesmen.

Ainsi Va Le Monde, a Poem. Inscribed to Robert Merry, Esq.
A. M. By Laura Maria. 4to. 1s. 6d. Bell. 1790.

LAURA Maria is a very warm admirer of Mr. Merry’s poetical talents; she styles him,

‘ His country’s honor and the Muse’s pride.’

She considers him as

—‘ Justly gifted with the sacred lyre,
Whose sounds can more than mortal thoughts inspire.’

She professes that from his ‘ magic harp,’ she caught her poetic inspiration; and having for a short time wandered from her subject, Mr. Merry’s varied praise, thus recalls her vagrant Muse:

‘ Ah ! gentle Muse, from trivial follies turn,
Where patriot souls with god-like passions burn.
Again to *Merry* dedicate the line,
So shall the envied meed of taste be thine ;
So shall thy song, to glorious themes aspire,
Warm’d with a spark of his transcendent fire.’

Though the fair author supposes the ‘ meed of taste’ (the expression is not very happy), will be conferred on her, in consequence of her celebrating Mr. Merry’s *patriotic* ardor and poetic genius, we think she is entitled to, and will obtain praise from a much more honourable cause, her own merit. That her poetical talents are no way inferior to his; and her *patriotism*, or rather political sentiments, more just and rational, will appear from the lines subsequent to those already quoted.

‘ Thro’ all the scenes of nature’s varying plan,
Celestial freedom warms the breast of man ;
Led by her daring hand, what pow’r can bind
The boundless efforts of the lab’ring mind.
The god-like fervour, thrilling thro’ the heart,
Gives new creation to each vital part ;
Throbs rapture thro’ each palpitating vein,
Wings the rapt thought, and warms the fertile brain ;
To her the noblest attributes of Heav’n,
Ambition, valour, eloquence, are giv’n.
She binds the soldier’s brow with wreaths sublime,
From her, expanding reason learns to climb,
To her the sounds of melody belong,
She wakes the raptures of the poet’s song ;
’Tis god-like freedom bids each passion live,
That truth may boast, or patriot virtue give ;
From her, the arts enlighten’d splendors own,
She guides the peasant—she adorns the throne,
To mild Philanthropy extends her hand,
Gives truth pre eminence and worth command :
Her eye directs the path that leads to Fame,
Lights Valour’s torch, and trims the glorious flame,

She

She scatters joy o'er Nature's endless scope,
Gives strength to reason—extacy to hope ;
Tempers each pang humanity can feel,
And binds presumptuous power with nerves of steel,
Strangles each tyrant phantom in its birth,
And knows no title—but superior worth.

‘ What is the charm that bids mankind disdain
The tyrant's mandate and th' oppressor's chain ;
What bids exulting liberty impart
Extatic raptures to the human heart ;
Calls forth each hidden spark of glorious fire,
Bids untaught minds to valiant feats aspire ;
What gives to freedom its supreme delight ?
'Tis emulation, instinct, nature, right.’

‘ Yet let ambition hold a temp'rate sway,
When virtue rules—'tis rapture to obey ;
Man can but reign his transitory hour,
And love may bind—when fear has lost its pow'r.
Blest may he be who nobly acts his part.
Who boasts the empire of each subject's heart,
Whose worth exulting millions shall approve,
Whose proudest treasure—is a Nation's love.’

We meet, it must be allowed, in Mr. Merry's poem, as well as in the present, with several lines that deserve much commendation. The reader, indeed, must in each case pay pretty dear for them; the bulk of these poems being in no proportion to their price: but Liberty, it has been observed, cannot be bought too dear.

Letters to the Right Hon. Edmund Burke, occasioned by his Reflections on the Revolution in France, &c. The Second Edition, corrected. By Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1791.

DR. Priestley replies to Mr. Burke with his usual shrewdness, and with a happy mixture of acute reasoning, sarcastic raillery, and pleasing irony. He has been fortunate too in attacking the weakest side of the Reflections, and we think his success would have been complete if he had not occupied the opposite end of the beam, where he might perhaps suppose less power would act with proportionally greater force. In calm persuasive argument, we have often observed, that Dr. Priestley has few equals; and though frequently compelled from conviction to differ from him, we are never unwilling to express our sense of his varied and admirable talents. But we shall have sufficient

sufficient occasion to praise and blame in our examination of this reply, which greatly excels every other that we have yet seen.

In the preface Dr. Priestley regrets the secession of Mr. Burke from the cause of liberty, especially as they had laboured together in their opposition to the American war; but we have some doubts of there being 'a stronger general sense of religion' in the new continent 'than in any other part of the world.' The latest travellers, and particularly the marquis de Chatellux, are of a different opinion, at least respecting the southern states. Dr. Priestley also introduces the memoir of M. Lally de Tollendal, in which he appears to speak with respect of the national assembly, and to entertain very different opinions from Mr. Burke, who rests greatly on M. de Tollendal's representations. We have not the memoir before us, but on reading it we did not perceive the profound respect: many of the expressions seemed equivocal, and the tenor, we thought, displayed some doubt and suspicion. But, not to contend on the unstable foundation of recollection, we will ask Dr. Priestley if—'une tres petite portion d' individus pourroit rendre inutile les intentions pures de la majorité,' is properly rendered, 'that the majority of the persons who composed it (the national assembly) had the purest intentions?' We must, however, observe, that Dr. Priestley meant not to mislead, for he has added the original.

The first Letter is on the general principles of the French Revolution. On this subject, no candid person will greatly differ from the author. That a change was necessary, may be admitted; but we cannot allow, that the continuance of the assembly's sitting is a proof of the general concurrence of the people. M. de Calonne has clearly shown, that they have in many respects acted in opposition to the instructions of their constituents; and to legalise their continuance, another appeal should be made to the people, or their opinions ascertained by other instructions.

It is admitted by our author, that the assembly may, in some instances, have done wrong. In the emergency in which they were placed, it may have been necessary to do what was expedient for a time, rather than what was more strictly proper. These regulations may be of course designed as temporary only; and Dr. Priestley allows, that he does not see the good tendency of some of the decrees. The king not having the power of peace or war is defended; but we do not see, from the late instances, that this was likely to prevent wars, or, from the conduct of the national assembly, that the complaisance of the Revolution Society has secured their friendship. The limited and provisional veto is an error of much greater magnitude, as no political balance can in this way be discovered to counteract popular phrensy, or to correct the eccentricities of some ambi-

tious demagogue. Little errors of trifling importance are corrected, particularly about the division of the kingdom into mathematical figures*, and the eligibility of the former members in the new election. Dr. Priestley next adverts to that part of the Reflections respecting the queen; but his answer is, we think, less satisfactory than on some other points. If the morning-star was discovered to be a comet, if the Venus, if the Juno, if the Pallas was found to have the snaky hair of Medusa, it was enough to deprive it of its baleful influence, or to draw the fangs from the adder: we complain only when this was done, that the most gallant nation in Europe could stoop so low as to insult a woman already degraded. Let us select our author's short excellent defence of Dr. Price.

‘ In the same rash and indiscriminate manner you describe Dr. Price as exulting in the above-mentioned horrid outrages, which, I dare say, give him much more serious concern than they do you, and for a very obvious reason. He wishes to recommend the revolution, and therefore is sorry for every thing that disgraces it; whereas you wish to discredit it, and are evidently not displeased with any circumstance that favours your purpose. Dr. Price rejoices in the *good*, and you most uncandidly represent him as rejoicing in the *evil* that has necessarily accompanied it.’

In the third Letter, on the nature of government, the rights of men and of kings, Dr. Priestley repeats much of what has been formerly said in different publications, and we have as often examined. The rights of men is still an indefinable jargon, if it be supposed to imply more than the meaning we have affixed to it; and, at least in England, the king who is one branch of the legislature cannot be the servant of the people: in a political view, the same person cannot be a servant and equal to his master. When lord Somers says, as is mentioned in the fourth letter on ‘ the Revolution of England compared with that of France,’ that all magistrates and governors proceed from the people, it does not mean that they are subordinate, but that the power ultimately resides in the people, and their consent is gathered from their submission. In this part of the argument also the reply is not very satisfactory, and in the comparison, when the difference of conduct must necessarily strike a careful enquirer, it is surprising that the difference of circumstances should not have also occurred. In the more particular defence of Dr. Price and of the conduct of the Revolution Society, Dr. Priestley seems to consider, that a sermon preached on a weekday, and on a secular occasion, may be with strict propriety po-

* But was Mr. Burke in an error in this representation?

litical. He thinks it might have been as well (perhaps better) delivered in a private room.

The Letters which follow are: On the Revolution Society in England, and Mr. Burke's Reflections on Dr. Price. On the Interference of the State in Matters of Religion in general. On the Source of the Respect that is paid to Religion. On a civil Establishment being essential to Christianity. On the Uses of civil Establishments of Religion. On an Elective Clergy. On Monastic Institutions, and Mr. Burke's general Maxim that existing Powers are not to be destroyed. On the Sacredness of the Revenues of the Church.

The ecclesiastical part of Mr. Burke's Reflections, which we thought the most tedious, the least interesting or conclusive, is the chief object of Dr. Priestley's attention. We shall mention the most important parts of the reply, giving our opinion where the author is successful, or where the argument seems to fail.

In Mr. Burke's Reflections, a church-establishment is certainly confounded with religion: in his view indeed they are nearly synonymous; and those who will alledge, in opposition, the flourishing state of the Dissenters, ought to enquire how far this is in itself owing to an establishment. These countervailing powers, like action and reaction, support each other, and their influence has certainly *hitherto* reached to the opposite shores of the Atlantic.

"Government, you say, p. 88, is a contrivance of human wisdom, to provide for human wants, and men have a right that these wants be provided for by this wisdom."

"You will not, however, say that *all* human wants are to be provided for by government; for it is manifestly only *some* of them that its great power can reach, and therefore much must be left to the individuals themselves. This you allow, when you say, p. 87, whatever each man can separately "do, without trespassing upon others, he has a right to do for himself." Since, then, I can *eat* and *drink* whatever suits my appetite, without trespassing upon any body, you will allow that the state has no business to prescribe what I shall eat or drink, or when, or in what manner, I shall do it. I imagine, also, you will allow that my neighbours have no right to complain of me, if, when I am indisposed, I treat myself as I think proper, taking whatever advice, or whatever medicines, I please. They may do the same, and I shall not complain of them. Pray, then, what right, on this plain and obvious principle, advanced by yourself, has any man to complain of me if I *worship* God in what manner I please, or if I do not chuse to worship God at all? Does my conduct in this respect injure them? What, then,

then, has the state, or my neighbours, to do in this business, any more than with my food or my medicine?

‘ In this, and many other things, government has taken a great deal too much upon it; and has by this means brought itself into great and needless embarrassments. In many things besides the article of religion, men have busied themselves in *legislating* too much, and when it would have been better if individuals had been left to think and act for themselves.’

All this our author allows only supports a toleration; but what connection then has the state with any man's religion. The answer to this question is acute, but the only satisfactory part of the reply is in the following paragraph.

‘ But when it was urged that civil magistrates were not always the best judges of religious truth, that they had often little leisure for the study of religion, and were apt to be imposed upon by priests, and others, whose interest it was to mislead them; besides that, upon this plan, the religion of every country, would be liable to be changed with every change of governors, as was the case in our own country, in several successive reigns after that of Henry VIII. or rather Henry VII. this old ground was shifted; and of late it has been maintained by our high church divines, and by yourself, who must be classed with them, that the civil magistrate has nothing to do with the *truth* of religion, being obliged to provide for that which is professed by the *majority* of the subjects, though he himself should be of a different persuasion. Thus they say the king of Great Britain, must maintain episcopacy in England, and presbyterianism in Scotland, whether he be a presbyterian as king William, a Lutheran as George I. or a true churchman as his present majesty.’

Again:

‘ Now you cannot be so little read in the history of England, as not to know that the *church* and the *state* were as much connected before the Reformation as they have been since, and while the establishment was presbyterian, as well as now that it is episcopalian. You must know also that the inhabitants of this country, were at one time as zealous papists as they now are protestants, and yet they were brought to make a change in their established religion, and that this was done without making any material change in the system of civil government. You must know that the presbyterians in Scotland, and the episcopalians in England, have at this very time the same king and the same parliament. But how do these facts agree with your favourite idea of the inseparable union of church and state? What, then, is the foundation of the dread you have entertained of any *future* change in the religion of our country,

try, when no harm, but, as all protestants think, much advantage, has been derived from *past* changes in it ?

If it were necessary for us to reply, it would be very shortly in this manner. While the connection of religion with government *exists*, that of the state should be the established one, independent of the numbers who compose that state ; nor can this be an inconvenience when the toleration is complete. That it *should exist*, we have contended in direct opposition to the last paragraph, from the influence which religion has always had on the form of government. No one carried the absolute power of monarchs higher than the Stuarts, who were in general Catholics, and the only period in which England was a commonwealth, was during the influence of the Presbyterians and Independents. We have now an additional reason, looking on the national assembly in the light in which it appears to us, to dread a change. We must necessarily be apprehensive that, under other auspices, the rage of innovation may lead us on in the path which we think will be fatal to our neighbours. If, however, Dr. Priestley recollects some late events, he will find this argument respecting the religion of the majority did not always appear so strong to his own party. In these circumstances, when some peculiar indulgences were granted to the Catholics of Canada, the clamour was very violent on that side, though they were confessedly the most numerous of the inhabitants of that part of America. The path of truth, both in physical and political questions, is single, the mazes of error numerous ; in other words, those who act must choose their object, while every other that occurs to the objector is the vehicle of complaint or abuse. As to the observation, p. 59, which Dr. Priestley says has never been animadverted on, we know not any satisfactory answer that can be given to it ; nor, admitting it in full force, will any material change occur in the argument. It is connected with, and influenced by, the great question of the propriety of connecting religion with civil government.

It has happened unfortunately for Mr. Burke's argument, that in France, where religion is supported in the greatest splendor by a princely establishment, that deism and infidelity should have made such a rapid progress. The levity of the French nation, the lively wit, and the keen sarcasms of Voltaire, peculiarly adapted to the taste of his countrymen, added to the indifference with which stated services are sometimes read, have greatly contributed to this change. Dr. Priestley has taken every advantage of this fact, and carried on the parallel or contrast between the Catholic ministers, those of the church of England, and the Dissenters, with great success.

But

But admitting what he has advanced, we still think that solid learning and extensive acquisitions are more commonly found in the clergymen of the establishment than in those of the Dissenters, chiefly owing we suspect, to the greater rewards, higher honours, and more honourable stations being the objects in view. We mean not to depreciate the Dissenting clergymen: we know that Dr. Priestley's warm panegyric is in general true; and we are ready to admit that their zeal, their diligence, and their learning, without the assistance of the incitements we have mentioned, deserve the highest commendations. Many of their defects are owing to their situation: the necessity of frequent new compositions for the pulpit engages much of their time; the necessary dependence on the caprices of the ignorant and opulent represses their freedom of sentiment and expression; above all, the elective appointments to congregations is a source of much inconvenience. On this last question, Dr. Priestley differs from us. He sees many advantages in this mode of appointment without any disadvantages, and commends the regulations of the national assembly in this respect. Several inconveniencies, however, have occurred to our observation, and we may be allowed to style Dr. Priestley's view of the subject a partial one. Has he never seen a minister change a Calvinistic congregation for an Unitarian one, or the contrary? Is there not, in some of these instances, a sacrifice of principle? Supposing the minister himself ignorant of the proceedings, has he ever seen more subtle manœuvres in the election of a member of parliament, than in the choice of a pastor of a congregation?

Dr. Priestley urges Mr. Burke in many places with great force, on his aversion to innovations; in other words, to reformation or improvements. The subject is a difficult one, and is only to be discussed in particular cases. Where much is to be gained, much undoubtedly is to be risked in the attempt; but in general, where the contingent good is small, and the probable evil is great, we should recommend patience. This is the principle which has guided us in our judgment relative to the repeal of the test act. Even when the contingent good is considerable, as in the abolition of the slave-trade, if the certain inconveniencies in the way are numerous, innovation should be attempted with great caution. A man may as well say to his neighbour, my garden will be much enlarged, and my house more airy and wholesome, if you would only permit me to burn yours.

The increase of the number of Dissenters, the subject of the test laws and the supposed success of the Unitarians in the late controversies, we have often considered: we need not return to these subjects; but when Dr. Priestley speaks of the poor laws

as 'no proof of the wisdom of our ancestors,' he should recollect that one of the early steps of the national assembly was a similar institution. We can add only one other specimen, and it shall be one of a different kind from those which we have already transcribed. A specimen of our author's more animated style.

'Writing to an orator, I naturally think of metaphors and comparisons, and therefore I will give you two or three more. So far is a civil establishment from being friendly to christianity, that it may be compared to the animal, called the *sloth*, which, when it gets upon any tree, will not leave it till it has devoured even the leaves and the bark, so that it presently perishes. Rather, it is the animal called a *glutton*, which falling from a tree (in which it generally conceals itself) upon some noble animal, immediately begins to tear it, and suck its blood; and if it be not soon shaken off (which sometimes every effort fails to effect) it infallibly kills its prey.

'Now, when I see this *fungus* of an *establishment* upon the noble plant of *christianity*, draining its best juices; when I see this *sloth* upon its stately branches, gnawing it, and stripping it bare; or, to change my comparison, when I see the *glutton* upon the shoulders of this noble animal, the blood flowing down, and its very vitals in danger; if I wish to preserve the tree, or the animal, must I not, without delay, extirpate the fungus, destroy the sloth and kill the glutton. Indeed, sir, say, or write, what you please, such vermin deserve no mercy. You may stand by, and weep for the fate of your favourite fungus, your sloth, or your glutton, but I shall not spare them.'

The last Letter describes the happiness, the golden age which is to ensue from the late revolutions. We need not enlarge on this scene; for the description is scarcely less poetical, we fear scarcely less imaginary, than that of Virgil in his 'Pollio,' or of his predecessor, perhaps his prototype, Isaiah.—We hope it will be realised.

On the whole, we have been highly pleased with this reply; and Dr. Priestley, as we have remarked, has been more successful, as he has been more happy in directing his attack to the vulnerable parts of his antagonist. The general question is not, however, greatly altered. We could have wished that much extraneous matter had not been mixed with the principal subject; and that Dr. Priestley had not so often repeated what he had said with equal force, and more propriety, in other places.

Reflections upon Reflections, including some Observations on the Constitution and Laws of England; particularly on Pressing, on the Excise, on Libels, &c. In two Letters to the Right Hon. Edmund Burke, in Answer to his Pamphlet. By Robert Woolsey, Gent. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stewart. 1790.

MR. Robert Woolsey, Gent. is not gentle in his manner, either according to the meaning of the term, as used by the 'gentle Shakspeare,' or in its more modern and more refined sense. 'Railing stands where reason ought, and opprobrious epithets supply the place of argument.' This description, applied to Mr. Burke, suits his own work; and the engineer 'hoists with his own petar.' The remarks are so closely directed to particular passages, are so generally personal, and so seldom argumentative, that we cannot compliment the Gentleman, by adding, that he has in any respect elucidated the question.

The second Letter is on the Constitution and the Laws of England, which, as Mr. Burke had praised, he is resolved to blame. He is most severe on the laws of libels, and for the recovery of debts; and, as the galled jade winces, we should suspect that he has felt the lashes of one or both. There is, however, an archness in his severity, and at times a pleasantry in his irony, which makes us laugh *with* him, as much as the unmerited representations and some ludicrous errors make us laugh *at* him. He does not reflect that laws are calculated for the general good; that they must be framed for the benefit of the whole, and of course, may bear hard in particular instances. Of his pleasantry we shall add a specimen, to leave the reader in good humour, and perhaps to induce him to look over the work, where he will meet with many similar remarks. It is on the subject of pressing.

'But notwithstanding the excellence of this method, I must be ingenuous enough to acknowledge, that it is not perfect. It is certainly capable of addition, if not of amendment, for it cannot be denied that money is as necessary as men in these cases: I therefore humbly propose, that pressing be also established in regard to the former, and that a power be immediately vested in the minister to send a proper gang at all seasonable times (of which of course he shall be judge) into the houses of any of his majesty's subjects; and then and there to press and carry away such money and other property as may by them or their employer be deemed requisite. Some will likely enough start at this little addition to the pressing law, and be apt to bestow upon it the odious epithets of tyrannic, arbitrary, &c. but this odium will disappear, when we become as much accustomed to the impressing of money as we now are to the

impressing of men. And besides, no one who approves of the latter can with reason reprehend the former; unless, indeed, it be those who value their property beyond their persons, which, in cases of this nature, it is apprehended few people do.

Remarks on the Voyages of John Meares. In a Letter to that Gentleman. By George Dixon. 4to. 2s. 6d. Stockdale. 1790.

IN our review of captain Meares's voyages, many personal remarks relative to the conduct of captains Dixon and Portlock occurred, which, as captain Dixon's answer was already advertised, we chose to refer to a separate article. Indeed the disputes of individuals it has been our study to avoid, and we shall now only examine the different representations as they affect commerce or science.

We have repeatedly observed, that from all the calculations which we could make, the fur-trade was not an object so lucrative as it was represented; but we forebore to press this remark, because we clearly perceived, that by an amicable connection with the natives, and settlements on the coasts, its advantages might be greatly increased. This we suggested in our first review of captain Cook's discoveries, and every subsequent event has confirmed the opinion. At this time, we think it very probable that it will become highly lucrative if government will protect the rising settlement, and station a sufficient force either on the coast, or what may perhaps be still better, in some central spot, equally to protect the coast, the Hudson's-Bay Settlers, and the traders between both. Some station on the lakes would be well adapted to all these purposes. In the account of the trade in this pamphlet, captain Dixon seems to have collected nearly half as many ($\frac{2}{3}$) sea otter skins, as all the other traders together, except Mr. Meares in his last voyage, whose account is not at present before the public; and this seemingly from his discovery of Queen Charlotte's Islands, an untouched market. The discovery of these islands is attributed to captains Lowrie and Guise; but our author justly remarks, if having seen them is to be styled a discovery, many others, captain Portlock, and himself, might claim it at an earlier æra.

Captain Dixon also contends, that the extraordinary race of people seen by Mr. Meares in lat. $56^{\circ} 38'$ N. and in long. 223° E. very nearly, were seen by him in Norfolk Sound in June, and Port Mulgrave in May. From Port Mulgrave also he procured the wood-canoe, nor during the whole of his stay there did he see a single skin-canoe, though the latter are said by Mr. Meares to be found so far as Cape Edgcumbe. The track of the Washington within the straits of John de Fuca, rests it seems on the authority of Mr. Meares; it is supported, however,

by various collateral circumstances. Mr. Meares was prevented from examining this strait by the interposition of the Spaniards; but in other parts of the coast it is contended that he has not paid a proper respect to the discoveries of captain Duncan and Barclay. The following passage we must transcribe.

‘ Having in your “ Observations, &c. on the probable existence of a north-west passage,” page 48, favoured us with an attempt to prove the probability of a communication between Cook’s river and the southernmost part of Baffin’s Bay, or the northernmost part of Hudson’s Bay, into the Atlantic Ocean, you proceed, “ For it should be remembered, that in the highest known latitude of Cook’s River, no impediment was observed to the further progress of ships, either from rocks, shoals, or a want of a due depth of water; the channel, on the contrary, appearing capacious and extensive, and abounding with whales.” I should be glad to know on whose authority you make the above assertion? for I cannot find, after perusing your account of captain Douglass’s voyage, and your own also, that either of you were so high up this river, or higher than $60^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude; or that you had boats higher than the *narrows*; and captain Cook, in his chart of that river, (vide Cook’s last voyage), evidently shews the contrary: for he has laid down a large shoal above the narrows, on which the ship grounded; and the depth of the water, as put down on that chart, (an authority which I presume you are not disposed to controvert) decreases.

‘ Neither do I find in his book the least notice taken of their seeing any whales. However, should any future navigator, on the credit of your assertion, (which, begging your pardon, I scarcely think they will), go up there to catch whales, and be disappointed, for their encouragement, I can venture to affirm, they may obtain plenty of fresh salmon.’

From every circumstance that we can collect, the probability of the connection between Cook’s River and Slave Lake is highly probable; but if, as Mr. Meares observes, between the latitude of 61 and 62, a navigable strait of considerable extent, free from ice, and with a flux and reflux of tide greater than can be accounted for by the vicinity of one sea, appeared to view, it will overturn every idea of the connection. Captain Cook, however, or rather captain Bligh, surveyed it above the Narrows, so far as lat. $61\frac{3}{4}^{\circ}$, and they determined it to be a river.

The most heavy accusation against Mr. Meares, an accusa-

* According to Mr. Roberts’ map, prefixed to captain Cook’s Voyages.

tion which we could not at first believe, but which on a careful examination we find well founded, is laying down the land to the eastward of its real situation, apparently with a design of favouring the opinion which he adopts of the existence of a north-west passage. We shall select our author's observations, which are evidently written in haste, and in which we find something to reprehend as well as in Mr. Meares's map.

' The part where you exercise your talents in so wonderful a manner, is the sea seen by Mr. Hearne. Go on, sir; make one remove more, and you will open a north-west passage.

' Speaking still of the *Iphigenia*, you observe, " This ship enters so far to the east, that she passes, by three degrees, the western boundary of Mr. Hearne's sea in 72° , (but placed by Mr. Arrowsmith, in his chart lately published from Mr. Turner's charts and journals, in the latitude $68^{\circ} 15'$ north, and longitude of 228° east of Greenwich) when a clear and extensive passage is seen without impediments."

' Well might the ship be to the eastward of that place; for, as I observed before, (when speaking of your own chart), that part placed by Mr. Arrowsmith in longitude $247^{\circ} 45'$ east, you have removed to 228° east, which is only $19^{\circ} 45'$ to the westward of him; but, not contented with that, you have laid down the land $1^{\circ} 30'$ to the eastward at Princess Royal Island, Nepean's Sound, Banks's Island, and in general, all that side of the channel.

' On what authority you have deviated in your chart from captain Duncan (as laid down by Mr. Arrowsmith) I know not, there being no reason whatever assigned for it in your publication; neither can I by any means learn why we are favoured with capes *Mendoxino* and *Mendocino*, in your *very correct* delineation of the American coast; as the most correct chart extant, so far as relates to that part of the coast, has only one Cape Mendocino; the other is called *Cape Blanco*, which cape you have been pleased to remove $1^{\circ} 39'$ to the northward of its real situation.—By the same happy method (discovered I believe only by you) of removing land at pleas re, you have placed Port sir Francis Drake in latitude 49° north, but which I presume can only be found in $47^{\circ} 30'$ nearly.'

Not to be impeded by a topographical error, we must at once observe, that the 47 and 49 should be 37 and 39 respectively.

The first accusation is a very serious one, and demanded the most careful attention. If our readers turn to the first article in this Number, they will perceive that we consider Mr. Hearne's and Mr. Turner's sea as situated in different spots, for the reasons which we have assigned (p. 2.) In one of these we find that we were not perfectly accurate, for Arrowsmith places

places Congecathawhacaga in lat. $66\frac{1}{2}$, while Hearne, from observation, fixed it at 69° . Perhaps, on the whole, this does not occasion a considerable error, for the last geographer, whose charts, the more they are examined are found to deserve greater credit, seems to have laid it down from the traders maps, and the spot may have been denominated without sufficient care, or there may have been two places with similar names. We are much inclined to place the embouchure of Copper-mine river at least very near 70° .—But this is from the purpose.

Captain Dixon accuses Mr. Meares of having removed the sea above 19° West. It may be observed, that the latter author considers the sea as seen at the same place by Mr. Turner and Mr. Hearne, but laid down differently according to the difference of computation. It is expressed so in his own map, and the longitude is taken from Arrowsmith; so that if Mr. Arrowsmith has laid down the sea in that longitude, Mr. Meares is blameless. In reality he has done so, but he has also laid down the sea in the longitude mentioned by captain Dixon, evidently supposing the sea as seen at two different places. We can only account for this oversight in captain Dixon, by his considering the sea with Mr. Meares as the same, and looking but at one part of the chart, for the two seas are in two separate parts. The most western sea is laid down from longitude 225 to $231\frac{1}{2}$ (the mean $228\frac{1}{4}$) in lat. 68° N. and the sea seen by Mr. Hearne from $246\frac{1}{2}$ to $249\frac{1}{2}$ (mean 248°) lat. 69° . All these numbers are taken by measuring off the map, and consequently are not perfectly accurate, though they are nearly so. From all these views, it is improbable that there should be any sea in 65° of lat. to the west of the sea laid down by Turner, or between that and the supposed western shores of the American continent.

On examining the other accusation with the same care, we find it well founded. In our measurement from Arrowsmith, we perceive the error in the longitude of Nepean Sound $1^{\circ}\frac{1}{4}$, of Banks' Island $1^{\circ}\frac{1}{4}$, and in the latitude of Cape Blanco $45'$.—The error in the longitudes are to the eastward. Captain Dixon's map, prefixed to his voyage, it may be observed, agrees with Mr. Arrowsmith's; and if Mr. Meares has observed with greater care, it should have been noticed, for the difference is too great not to be pointed out. Indeed in Mr. Meares's map the continent is evidently so narrow as in a moment to excite suspicion.

These are the accusations of captain Dixon, which we have examined so far as was in our power. We have not sought for errors, or avoided the enquiry. With the same candour we

shall take up Mr. Meares's reply, and we hope from this dispute that geography will reap no little advantage.

A New Literal Version of the Book of Psalms: with a Preface and Notes. By the Rev. Stephen Street, M. A. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. White and Son. 1790.

IT has long been the subject of regret, that a portion of the service so frequently used as the book of Psalms, should be in general obscure, and even unintelligible. That these compositions were originally perspicuous and connected, as well as metrical and poetic, would be evident on the slightest observation, if this point had not been amply elucidated by the labours of the learned. But in their present state, whether we respect the Bible or Liturgy translation, they are such a mass of confusion, that he must possess a very happy knack at conjecture, who can decypher the author's sense throughout a single Psalm. Flashes of meaning indeed frequently break out, and continue for two or three successive verses; but these are soon lost by the introduction of new observations, and subjects of a totally different nature.

Perhaps it is vain to expect a translation of the Psalms consonant in form and substance to the original. Every possible difficulty opposes this expectation: the prodigious lapse of time, the uncertainty of the original language, the unexampled misfortunes of the people, the innumerable corruptions of transcribers, with the entire difference of modern composition, manners, and objects, form such a barrier, as we can never hope that human ingenuity, unassisted by a miracle, will surmount. Learned men, indeed, have done all in their power to remove the rubbish, in order to come at the original ore; but the united efforts of the most successful have as yet produced no system, nor, we believe, a single psalm, to which other interpreters do not raise numerous objections, and suggest various readings. Nor is the external history of their compositions free from a variety of conjecture; the occasion of the Psalm, its author, the person to whom addressed, its structure and division, with the number and character of its performers, furnish, as well as the matter itself, ample subject of controversy and discussion. Whoever, therefore, endeavours to elucidate these compositions, and to render them generally intelligible, undertakes a work truly acceptable to sacred literature. We heartily wish that either of these points had been attained in the present translation; but we are sorry to see much learned labour unprofitably expended. The author unquestionably possesses a correct knowledge of the Hebrew, and some acquaintance

quaintance with the Arabic languages; but neither these, nor all his researches and conjectures, have enabled him to attain that great desideratum in sacred literature, which his title-page induced us to expect.

That we may not incur the charge of partial selection, we present the first psalm:

‘ 1. O the happiness of that man who hath not walked after
the counsel of the ungodly,

And hath not stood in the way of the sinful,

And hath not sat in the assembly of scoffers,

‘ 2. But his delight is in the law of Jehovah,

And in his law he continually meditateth day and night!

‘ 3. Because he shall ever be like a tree planted near streams of
water,

Which bringeth forth its fruit in due season,

Whose foliage never fadeth,

And it bringeth all its produce to maturity.

‘ 4. Not so are the ungodly, but as the chaff

Which the wind constantly scattereth.

‘ 5. For this reason the ungodly shall not be able to stand in
judgment,

Neither the sinful in the congregation of the righteous;

‘ 6. Because Jehovah regardeth the way of the righteous,

That the way of the ungodly may come to nought.’

Here is nothing new or materially different from the existing translations, except the linear division. Nor does the whole work contain a single Psalm that abounds not in the same disjunction of sentiment and uncouthness of phrase, to which we are accustomed in the established versions. We were in hopes of finding difficulties solved or palliated in this literal translation: but here too we are disappointed. Psalm xlix. the *opprobrium criticorum* is precisely the same, except in form, with the other versions; viz. v. 8, 9, and 10: ‘No man can ransom another, nor give unto God an expiation for him, and the precious ransom of his life, when it ceaseth for ever, so that he might continue to eternity, and might not see corruption.’

These are sufficient specimens of the whole work. We will not detract from Mr. Street's merit: his performance is calculated to occupy the learned Hebrew in his closet, and adds another foot-ball to the sports of critical investigation. But as to any new and useful readings and ingenious conjectures, or with respect to the general utility of the work, we beg leave, notwithstanding the numerous list of noble and mitred subscribers—to be silent.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

SINCE more accurate instruments have been employed, and foreign countries examined with a spirit more strictly philosophical, we have made considerable improvements in physical knowledge, and begin to trace connections and to perceive consequences formerly unattended to, or little understood. These it has been often our business to point out; and we cannot better pursue the subject of our last sketch, than by giving some account of the meteorological observations of Dr. Cassan, in the torrid zone. The observations were made by this gentleman in the Leeward Islands, where the sky is constantly serene, and the luxury of a clear day so frequent that it almost passes unregarded. The rain is, however, at times copious, and the climate moist, for the clouds are low, and prevented from dispersing by the trees; but rain can be always foreseen, and commonly avoided. The quantity of water which falls annually at St. Domingo and the Grenades has been calculated at 120 or 125 inches annually. Yet apparently, in a very rainy year, at St. Lucie, our author did not find that it amounted to one half this quantity; and the moisture of the air is, he thinks, rather owing to the exhalations, and the vapours from the sea, than the rain. The barometer rises in the rainy season, because, in Dr. Cassan's opinion, the air recovers elasticity by discharging the humidity with which it was saturated. The real quantity of water that falls on Morne Fortuné, in St. Lucie, is about a line and five-sixths of a line daily, or very nearly 56 inches annually.

This mountain is elevated 140 toises above the level of the sea. Its summit is cleared, and entirely occupied by military stations; but the greatest part of the rest of the mountain is covered with wood; its base is surrounded by a large marshy valley, little cultivated, but capable of producing plentiful harvests when drained and planted. Morne Fortuné is an isolated mountain, for no other comes near it except Mount Plain, which is comparatively a hillock. Those mountains, which seem to rise above it, are distant at least three leagues, so that they cannot impede the circulation of air. The soil is clayey, and notwithstanding its steepness, preserves for a long time the moisture of the rains, and exposes to the effects of an extreme humidity every body either animate or inanimate found there.

The mountains which face Morne Fortuné, and terminate the valley around it, rise in the form of an amphitheatre, by a gentle slope, and perfectly resemble the concavity of the amphitheatre of the ancients. They would afford, perhaps, the grandest prospect in the world, if they were cultivated; but they are in the pure state of nature, and display only inaccessible forests, inspiring the idea of a receptacle for serpents, lizards, and frogs. Every

morning.

morning, and particularly in cloudy weather, a thick fog forms on these mountains, and principally on the ravines between them, strong marks of the moisture of those spots, and their powerful attraction for that of the atmosphere; but the fogs are too far from Morne Fortuné to affect the exactness of the meteorological observations made there.

The period of the greatest heat was about an hour and a half after noon, and of the least about half an hour after five in the morning: of consequence these times were chosen for the observation, and it is remarked, that the heat could not be affected by any reverberation of a neighbouring mountain. The difference of temperature, between the station at Morne Fortuné and that of the city of Castries, situated at the bottom, secluded particularly from the east wind, and on all sides surrounded except towards the sea, is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ degrees. It has appeared 5° ; but the former difference seems to be that which would be observed in other plains where the easterly wind was admitted, and it supports neither the calculations of Euler or Saussure. The latter thought that the heat lessened one degree of Reaumur in every hundred toises (about $2\frac{1}{4}$ of Fahrenheit). But the progression appears to be much more rapid in warm climates, though probably accurate in Switzerland; so that, to establish a general rule, requires various observations in different places, with a particular examination of the local circumstances, which may influence the results. It is undoubtedly of service in medicine, as our author remarks, to know the temperature of the air, particularly in the sun, as in tropical countries the sky is seldom clouded, and persons are frequently exposed unsheltered to the rays of this luminary. The greatest heat, in the sun, was on the twenty-first of October, at three quarters after two, and the thermometer (Reaumur's) was at $43\frac{1}{3} = 130\frac{1}{2}$ very nearly, of Fahrenheit's scale. Our author observed also, that the heat of the solar rays augmented gradually in the torrid zone, from the rising of the sun to half an hour after eight: it then continued stationary, and even diminished a little till ten o'clock. The heat then increased till noon, to remit a little about two, and from thence to be more intense till near three, the hottest time of the day: this range was seemingly much influenced by the wind. The mean heat of the solar rays was about 39° , (nearly 120°) on the mountain, and $41\frac{1}{2}$ (nearly $125\frac{1}{2}$) on the same plains. The negroes are consequently exposed to this heat ten hours each day, and their constitutions must undoubtedly be affected by it. Our author supposes that it has no influence on their colour, as the East Indians and Chinese are exposed to the same heats; but we must look to the causes and the weather of their own country for their original colour; and, perhaps, after all, it is easier to explain the change from black to white than the contrary, and it is self-

self-love only which makes the whites suppose theirs to have been the original colour. We see indeed the effects of the heat in the laxity and weakness of the negroe's constitution; and as, perhaps, Dr. Cassan's comparative anatomy and physiology of the negroe may be interesting, we shall subjoin it.

The renal glands were found much larger in the negroe than the white, and the black fluid which fills them to be much more copious. Perhaps the excess of this black fluid may tinge their skins, as the excess of bile will give us a yellow hue, without communicating the colour to the blood or to the other organs. 'What supports this opinion is, that the odour of the negroe's skin is very fœtid, which must be owing to a deleterious fluid constantly deposited in it. If the appearance, he adds, be owing to this cause, it is not very astonishing, since many women during their pregnancy have been found to grow yellow, and even black: several of these cases are recorded by Bordeu, and are probably owing to an accidental deposition of this fluid, which is habitual in the negroe.'—But to return.

In calculating the heat, one error must be avoided. It must not be supposed, for instance, that because the mean heat of the air raises the thermometer twice as high as in the temperate zone, that the heat is twice as great. That only can be determined by knowing where heat begins. If the mean heat of Paris be 10, and that of Morne Fortuné be 24 (we speak now only proportionally, and need not therefore reduce the heats): if all heat be supposed to cease at 87 below frost, the heat of St. Lucie is to that of Paris as 111 to 97, not as 24 to 10. This distinction is new, and we think important: it at least requires, from meteorologists, particular attention.

The barometer is almost an useless instrument in the torrid zone: its changes are inconsiderable, and the conclusion our author draws, a conclusion perhaps not quite accurate, is that the elasticity of the air is always nearly the same, a circumstance of importance to consumptive persons. The mean elevation of the mercury on Morne Fortuné is 27 inches $7\frac{1}{2}$ lines. The law of its descent, when carried on mountains, is also different in the torrid zone, from what is observed in Europe: it sinks only one line for every 24 toises. Our author suspects, that this is owing to the air at the bottoms possessing very little elasticity, in comparison to that of the hills, so that the difference of elasticity lessens the effects of height. Our author has remarked also the periodical diurnal motion of the mercury, first mentioned by M.M. Godin and de Chanvalon. It occurs twice in 24 hours, but is neither so great nor so regular as these authors mention. It never amounted to more, in Dr. Cassan's enquiry, than two thirds of a line, and instead of occurring at the same hours every day, it seemed to him to follow the course of the tides, and to be longer

at *its ebb* than at *its flood*. These aerial tides our author thinks also, with much reason, to be connected with hurricanes. The hygrometer varied little, and these variations were not in appearance connected with the changes from wet to dry. The air was constantly moist, or had at any time very little hygrometrical affinity.

The winds in the Antilles are very peculiar. They are in general from the north-east to the south-east. They are not very stationary, and seldom reach either to the north or south: to find them in the west shows a great irregularity in the operations of nature, and impending disasters. The wind rises about eight as a soft gentle breeze, increases towards noon, and dies away at the setting of the sun. The winds are more regular under the torrid than in the temperate zones, but not quite so regular as has been represented: they are the principal causes of the moisture of the air, as they bring clouds from the sea. But we must now proceed to the more particular observations.

The rainy season is in September, October, and November. The thermometer was in these months from 102 to 75° , and the barometer from 27 inches 8 lines and $\frac{3}{4}$, to $27.5\frac{3}{4}$. In September, there were 13 days of rain, in which 7 inches 2 lines fell, and the daily evaporation, in free air, was 3 inches 8 lines. In October 15 days, or 8 inches 11 lines of rain: evaporation 5 inches 6 lines. In November 16 days, equal to 10 inches: evaporation 3.1. In the four following months the thermometer was from 93° to 68° ; nearly half the months rainy; but the rain inconsiderable, and much less than the free daily evaporation in the sun. The dew in these islands is copious, and, in calm weather, about $\frac{1}{2}$ of a line of water is usually precipitated; but this is counterbalanced by the wind; and, on an average, may be disregarded. The evaporation during a night, when the dew is excluded, equals $\frac{1}{2}$ of a line, $\frac{1}{10}$ of an inch. The wind, during the rainy season, is generally east: in October it was very violent for 18 days E. N. E. The consequences were catarrhal fluxions, and humoural diseases in different forms, which yielded to diluting liquors, and to evacuations of all kinds except bleeding, which did not appear to be necessary. Towards the end of this season various wandering pains, chiefly rheumatic, were obvious.

From the 15th of December to the 15th of January, for in this order our author's observations are kept, and what we call November, &c. includes one-half of the following month, deflections continued, owing in a great measure, on Morne Fortuné, to the necessity of going from the mountain to the town on business. Complaints of the throat were common, which required bleeding and blisters, though some yielded, as if by enchantment, to an emetic; and a profuse perspiration relieved others.

Some were malignant and required bark, serpentary and mineral acids, with blisters in different places: one terminated by a supuration of the parotid.

At the latter end of February, when the wind was northerly, colds, pains of the side, frequently accompanied by an acute fever, were very common. Bleeding, sometimes repeated bleeding, was necessary, with mild diluting diaphoretic drinks; but emetics and purgatives were very dangerous in the beginning. When the wind came round to the west, about the beginning of March, the fevers became remitting and malignant. Bleeding was injurious, and the bark given in large doses was very serviceable. Bleeding was followed in four instances by a jaundice, after having occasioned violent and alarming faintings, which could be only removed by large doses of bark acidulated, and spiritus mindereri. The jaundice was preceded by a weak intermitting pulse, and was critical with respect to the fever, but became an obstinate chronic disease, which yielded to nothing but tonics. In general, the westerly wind is considered as dangerous in these islands. When it continues several days it is always followed by severe epidemics, and it is regarded as a sign of violent hurricanes: in reality a violent hurricane, attended with a very high and rapid tide, occurred on the fifth of March. The wind usually came round to the east in the night. It afterwards varied from the east to the north-east, and was attended with very acute inflammatory diseases.

As the step is now equally easy to meteorological or medical enquiries, we shall pursue the latter; as a description of a peculiar putrid fever, with the dissection, which occurred at Cape François, by M. Arnaud, now lies before us. The person was a soldier of twenty-two, of a bilious sanguine temperament, and had been only two months in the colony. He had been in the hospital for a dysenteric diarrhœa, but was discharged cured, and returned ten days afterwards, in the sixth day of a fever. He had then a pain in the epigastrium, cough, foreness of the belly; tongue and fauces foul; complexion pale; pulse small and frequent. There was much prostration of strength, pains in the lower extremities, want of sleep, and very urgent thirst. The access of fever every day was attended with shivering, the remission by a profuse sweat: it came on at ten o'clock, and the heat was considerable at noon, attended with violent thirst, bilious stools, pains in the lower extremities, urine red, and discharged with difficulty. The heat was less in the evening, but the night was troublesome, and the mind disturbed. The paroxysm grew gradually later; coma came on and increased; deglutition became difficult; the urine offensive, and the man died on the ninth day.

The veins of the head, on dissection, appeared full of black blood,

blood, the plexus choroides was flaccid, there was a little deposition on the corpus callosum, and a serous effusion in the ventricles. In the lungs were many filamentous adhesions, and they were full of blood, but the ventricles of the heart contained only a little black blood. The epiploon was emaciated, the liver pale, and towards the bottom of the lower lobe, and in the middle lobe, were two soft black spots. The gall-bladder was full of bile, which changed the vegetable colours to a green: the spleen was very full, macerated, and black; the intestines inflamed; the vena cava and vena portarum were bursting with black blood. The internal part of the stomach was spotted with red and brown, and appeared in a gangrened state. The coats of the duodenum were easily torn, and all the intestines contained much putrid bilious matter. There was little urine in the bladder; and, like the bile, it appeared of an alkaline nature, while that of a healthy person is usually acid. The two kidneys were united by an anastomosis in their lower parts, forming an arch like a horse-shoe. It might be supposed that there was one only, if the vessels and ureters had not been distinct. There was one emulgent artery only on each side, which rose over the vein and penetrated near the extremity of its own side: two venous branches, sufficiently large, united in one trunk, to form the left emulgent vein. The spermatic vein terminated in this trunk. At the upper, middle, and internal part of the right side, two venous branches united in one trunk, which formed an emulgent: a second emulgent, smaller than the first, arose from the lower internal part of the right portion of the kidney, and after increasing a little in bulk, it penetrated into the cava below the first emulgent. The kidneys seemed composed of different lobules, but the two substances were not very distinct. The pelvis, on the left side, was larger than on the right, and each was more open than in the natural state, as well as the extremities of the ureters, which formed a kind of membranous funnel. The pyramids were very distinct.

The man seemed to suffer in no respect from this extraordinary formation; but M. Arthaud suspects that the pressure of the arch on the veins and aorta might impede the circulation, and contribute to the accumulations of blood that were found. But we may observe, that the coats of the aorta would defend it from the pressure, and in reality no accumulations were observed in the aortic system: those of the veins are usual in cases where the strength is very considerably lessened. Bleeding and laxatives our author thinks would have been highly useful in the beginning: the first would, however, have hastened the event; but the latter were always indicated.

We shortly mentioned M. Mascagni's work on the lymphatics in our LXVth vol. p. 454, and promised, if possible, a fuller account

account of it: we must at last acquit ourselves of the promise in this place. This celebrated anatomist first gives the history of the principal discoveries on the lymphatic system, and examines the opinions of Boerhaave, of Vieussens, and of Haller, on these subjects. He observed, in examining the circulation in the pellucid parts of animals, that in the axis of the vessels there is always a column of red globules, surrounded by a serous fluid. The diameter of this column corresponds to the size of the vessel; but he thinks there is no branch of an artery that does not terminate in a vein, and contain red globules. Mascagni injected a coloured fluid, whose globules were larger than the red particles of the blood, and yet the smallest arteries were filled. The brain, the chrystalline, the vitreous humour, the choroid, and uvea appeared to be a mass of vessels filled with the injection, so that the smallest must contain red blood, for the injection was thrown with very moderate force. There is, consequently, no lymphatic artery, and no communication of arteries but with veins, except in some parts of the body where a cell is interposed between the artery and the vein.

Authors have, however, spoken of the termination of the arteries in excretory ducts, in larger and smaller cavities, in the vesicles of the lungs, &c. and have produced examples where injections have passed from the arteries into these ducts. M. Mascagni has repeated these experiments; but he remarks, that it is not the whole of the injection that passes; the finer parts which exude through the inorganic pores of the vessels, only take this course. It is not from the extremities of arteries alone, he adds, that a serous fluid escapes, for the external coats of the arteries are covered with a dew, which is particularly observable in large drops when a vessel is tied, whether it be a large or a small one; whether the experiment is tried in a living, or by injection, in a dead animal. In trying these experiments on the venal artery, and then cutting the kidney in different directions, it is found that it consists of an infinite number of small cells, that communicate with cylindrical tubes, which, anastomosing, form a larger tube, and terminate in the papillæ or the pelvis. These tubes are surrounded by a considerable number of blood-vessels, and the cells have in their internal surface several little eminences, formed of a thick net-work of vessels. From these principles, M. Mascagni explains the secretion of urine: the vessels of the kidneys, he observes, are very numerous, and their surfaces are considerable; of course, much serum must exude and fall into the cellules. Some of the fluid is absorbed by the lymphatics; the rest passes through the tubes, where it acquires new properties, and is brought to the pelvis in the form of urine. This system, it is observed, is applicable to the other secretions, and overturns the systems of Ruyfch and Malphigi. If we may interpose our
opinion,

opinion, we should add, that we do not object to it in a certain extent; but an operation of such consequence would hardly, we think, be trusted to inorganic pores; and it may be also remarked, that this theory does not explain the connection of various passions with the secretion of urine.

The same arguments and experiments, employed to show that arteries do not terminate in lymphatics, are adduced also to prove that they do not terminate either in large or small cavities, nor on the surface of the skin. He shows that by these means serosity is not found in large cavities, and, in small ones, and on the skin, it escapes by transpiration. The same principles will contribute to explain some singular cases of passive hæmorrhages.

It has been supposed also that these veins were absorbents, and the experiment of Kaw Boerhaave has been adduced in favour of the opinion. Our author repeated this experiment, and found on pressing the stomach, previously filled with warm water, and continuing the pressure, gradually increased, the arteries as well as the veins were filled with the fluid. Having introduced two quarts of a coloured fluid into the stomach and intestines of a dead child, after twenty hours all the blood vessels of the mesentery were injected, and more than half the quantity had exuded into the abdomen. This is a striking instance of transpiration; and in all injections made by similar methods into the veins, signs of transpiration or rupture were evident.

Those instances, in which the injection passes from the blood vessels into the lymphatics, our author explains either by transudation, when the lymphatics will absorb it from the cellular substance; by rupture, when it reaches them in the same way; or by the absorbing vessels which open into the cavities of the blood-vessels. It is evident, from ocular inspection, that arteries do not terminate in lymphatics, for the professor has seen and shown the communication from the artery to the vein, as well as the cells which separate the inorganic pores of the vessels from the apertures of the lymphatics. They generally arise from a cellular texture even in the viscera. He has seen injections passing from the artery into the vein, exude, and be again absorbed.

M. Mascagni has not yet discovered lymphatic vessels on the skin, though they undoubtedly exist, as different matters are absorbed. It is, however, by no means clear that matters are absorbed unless they are in a fluid state, or are rubbed with violence on the skin, when they may enter the pores of the cuticle, and reach the cutis vera, where the orifices of the lymphatics most certainly are. The cuticle seems to be a defence against too free absorption.

The appearance of these vessels in their progress is sufficiently known, but our author seems to prove by a successive series of minute and accurate injections, that the peritoneum, pleura, and

other membranes, except so far as they contain blood-vessels, are composed of lymphatics. The blood-vessels and lymphatics are at least so numerous, as to hide the fibres of which these membranes must fundamentally consist. We have already observed, that every lymphatic, in the professor's opinion, passes through some gland in its progress to the thoracic duct.

The lymphatics are composed of two coats: the external contains cellules filled with oily matter: the internal is often doubled in folds forming the valves. *Our author has found these valves in all the lymphatics of man and other animals.* The microscope, M. Mascagni tells us, does not show any muscular fibres, and it is not necessary to suppose that there are any. The visible contraction is only the elasticity, for in a preparation, kept for a year in spirit of wine, the lymphatics when cut expelled their contents; and oil of vitriol, he adds, will contract the driest membranes. These observations are, however, far from being conclusive, and the fibres visible in the thoracic duct of a horse seem to show from analogy, that there are probably some more minute ones in the lymphatics of man. In this work absorption is explained from capillary attraction, and the impulse of the fluid is supposed to be owing to the elasticity of the coats. He ought to have taken into the account the erected fimbriæ described by Lieberkuhn, and to have shown that capillary attraction was so active a power as to distend the vessel; for, unless distended, it could not propel the fluids from its elasticity. He found the lymph consist chiefly of serum; the dry fibrous part weighing only about one 1200th part of the whole.

The conglobate glands are said to be composed of cellular vessels and lymphatic vessels. They are rather buttons composed of lymphatics, which terminate in cells. The blood vessels are also numerous, without anastomosing with the lymphatic vessels. The use of these glands is to retard the course of the lymph, and to produce an intimate union of its different parts: from the coats of the vessels a serum also probably exudes, in our author's opinion to *dilute*, though there is much reason to suppose that is designed also to animalize or correct the lymph. After it has passed these glands, the lymph acquires more of the fibrous parts, and its smell is changed. The lymph, for instance, in the vessels derived from the bladder, smells of urine; but after it has passed through glands it becomes mild, innocent, and uniform. This theory, adds M. Mascagni, is not weakened by the circumstance of birds having few of these glands, and fish none, since in these animals, the frequent plexures of the lymphatic vessels, and the few valves which they contain, make the progress of the lymph very slow and difficult.

The professor proceeds to describe the more particular distribution of the lymphatics; but this is, in general, well known: we shall trans-

scribe only what he has observed respecting the lymphatics of the head.

The lymphatics of the brain are large; but their coats are so thin that it was difficult to follow them to the glands on account of extravasation: their ramifications are very considerable. These vessels seem to proceed to two glands, placed at the side and below the internal carotid, and to two other large glands, farther down below the jugular. Those of the larynx, the pharynx, and tongue, as well as the lymphatics which follow the internal maxillary, unite in the same gland, and go from glands and plexuses, till they join the superficial lymphatics. The lymphatics of the dura mater follow the blood vessels of that part, and pass with them through the skull to terminate in the glands, situated in the division of the internal jugular. Other small vessels are found between the laminae of the dura mater, near the longitudinal sinus. If after injecting the dura mater with thin glue, as usual, it is drawn off, ruptured vessels may be discovered on its external surface, which M. Mascagni thinks are lymphatics, that pass through minute holes in the skull, and join the lymphatics of the surface. The surface of the brain has also its lymphatic vessels, which are so small that it is impossible to inject them with mercury: glue must be employed, but they still escape the sight between the laminae of the dura mater, near the longitudinal sinus. Small vessels are injected also in the tunica arachnoidea, with glue, which appear to be lymphatics: when injected with mercury their coats are soon torn and the fluid escapes.

This subject has engaged us so long that we cannot proceed with propriety to the examination of any other branch of medicine; and in anatomy, we have only to mention the continuation of a comprehensive treatise of anatomy, physiology, and zoology, by Laurence Nannoni, at Sienna. The chapters in this volume are, 1. On the thorax and its dependencies. 2. On the glands. 3. The arterial angiology, or a description of the arteries, veins, and lymphatics. Each subject is described shortly and clearly; and the whole seems intended as a syllabus of the author's lectures. The work is printed in quarto.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

DIVINITY, RELIGIOUS, &c.

An Apology for Esau. A Sermon, preached in the Parish-Church of St. Andrew, Plymouth, at the Archdeacon's Visitation. By Thomas Alcock, A. M. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Law. 1791.

WE cannot highly commend this Sermon, which is unreasonably long and not very interesting. It chiefly consists of a commentary on the transaction, in which the prophecy respecting

Esau was fulfilled by the treachery of Rebecca. When Esau is mentioned with disrespect, it is not from any part of this transaction, but from his selling his birthright to gratify his appetite. He had returned from the chase weary and hungry, but neither are represented as extreme, and if they were, gratification could not be far distant. His impatience and want of reflection are only held out as warnings against similar errors. He seems, however, in the end, to have prospered scarcely less than Jacob.

Pardon and Sanctification proved to be Privileges annexed to the due Use of the Lord's Supper, as a Feast on a Sacrifice. A Sermon, preached before the University of Oxford, at St. Peter's, on the 28th of November, 1790. By William Lord Bishop of Chester. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1791.

This Sermon is supplementary to the bishop's former discourses on the subject of the Lord's Supper. It proceeds on the same system of its being a feast on a sacrifice, and is designed to show the connection of pardon and sanctification with this sacrament. We need not add any thing, except that the present discourse is in every respect equal to those which preceded it, and a proof of the learning, judgment, and piety of this respectable prelate.

A Sermon on the Judgments of Mankind. By the late Rev. Charles Chais, Minister of the French Church at the Hague. Intended as a Specimen of a Translation of a Volume of Sermons, by the same Author. Translated by Stephen Freeman. 8vo. 1s. Dilly. 1790.

M. Chais was a very respectable divine of a Calvinistic congregation at the Hague, and his discourses have been deservedly esteemed as rational, judicious, and practical. The Sermon before us particularly deserves this character. The translation we cannot commend with equal warmth; it is apparently too literal, and therefore stiff and often idiomatic. 'Verbum verbo reddere' is perhaps never less necessary, as the qualification of a translator, than in the version of a sermon.

Reflections on Faith: in which it is shown, that no Difference of Religious Opinion is any reasonable Ground of Disrespect among Men, and especially among Christians. By Philanthropos. 8vo. 2s. Dilly. 1790.

This work can only at present engage our attention as it contains an answer to Mr. Burke, and a defence of the right to choose our own governors, to cashier them for misconduct, and to frame a government for ourselves. On each subject Philanthropos offers some arguments; but we do not perceive that he elucidates this obscure subject in any great degree. If we had found any argument of peculiar importance we should have selected it.

P O E T R Y.

Poems on Several Occasions. By James Henry Leigh, Esq. 4to.
3s. 6d. Hookham. 1790.

The first and largest of these Poems is 'the *New Rosciad*;' a title not strictly applicable to it, since many actors, whose respective merits are here investigated, have been literally, or theatrically dead, for a long time before its publication. The characters given of them are in general not very different from those commonly entertained; others are developed in a careless manner, and sometimes rather contradictory terms, as in the following passage, where an 'aspiring head' and 'modest caution' are attributed, we cannot conceive with much propriety, to the same character.

'With modest caution Brunton treads the stage,
To rise the future Cibber of the age.
Scarce seventeen years their fostering suns had shed,
When brightest laurels crown'd her aspiring head.'

Such a hobbling line as the last does not frequently occur, but we meet with some almost as exceptionable. The other poems are not entitled to much attention on account of their excellencies or defects.

A Collection of Odes, Poems, and Translations, by Laurence Hynes Hallaran. 8vo. 2s. Trewman. 1790.

Mr. Hallaran dedicates this little volume to the worthy citizens of Exeter, as a tribute of gratitude and affection; and adds, that

'To write an encomium adequate to the merits of so respectable a body of men, requires an abler pen than ever graced the hand of the most celebrated panegyrist. I will not therefore presumptuously undertake a task so far transcending my abilities. The unanimous approbation of their admiring countrymen loudly speaks their worth, and supercedes the necessity of an eulogium here; and the collective voice of a great nation pays homage to the merit, the benevolence, integrity, and patriotism of the citizens of Exeter!'

That men of inferior abilities to Mr. Hallaran's, are adequate to the task of celebrating the virtues of this wonderful race of people, or that the trump of fame is not so entirely occupied in sounding their praise as he seems to suppose, may, we apprehend, be modestly questioned; certain it is, the report has never been sufficiently loud to pierce the quiet retreat of the Critical Reviewers. Though we cannot but smile at this exuberance of panegyric, yet gratitude is too amiable to be a subject for ridicule; and we hope in future; however warm Mr. Hallaran's feelings may be, his expressions will be more temperate and guarded. He

does not, we trust, as a poet, aspire to be ranked in the first class, nor is he by any means to be degraded to the lowest. His diction is easy, and often rises beyond mediocrity. Our quotation is taken from the opening of the first poem, an Ode for the New Year.

• Behold, involv'd in clouds and gloom,
Beset with show'r, and storm, and wind,
The short-liv'd year his circling course resume;
While, in his variegated train behind,
Veil'd in impenetrable shade,
Millions of embryos are laid,
Which, waken'd by the magic touch of time,
In due succession shall existence gain,
And wide diffuse abroad, through ev'ry clime
Alternate scenes of life and death, of pleasure and of pain!

• See, wrapt in whirlwinds, from his goal
On wings of time he takes his flight,
And with unequal hand, from pole to pole,
Spreads the vicissitudes of day and night:
But see, advancing 'thwart the gloom,
The youngest of the seasons come!

The faded verdure at her tread revives,
And emulates her flowing mantle green,
Re-animate, the drooping herbage lives,
And tyrant Winter slow recedes before the grateful scene.'

It should be added, that the author owes but little to education; and that great part of the volume was composed at the *maft-head*, where those who have gathered laurels from the summit of Parnassus would not probably have written half so well.

An Epistle to Peter Pindar. 4to. 2s. Richardson. 1790.

Our author joins the herd of Peter Pindar's antagonists, and engages with this 'same learned Theban' in polished and often highly beautiful lines. The following we meet with very early.

• Ah! flown, the charms of Britain's halcyon days,
When list'ning candour smil'd inspiring praise,
When nature loath'd the subtleties of art,
And the warm vow rush'd moulded from the hearts,
Enchantment flow'd from truth's persuasive tongue,
And folly listen'd as the seraph sung;
No friendship barter'd, no religion sold,
Nor glitt'ring baubles pass'd for sterling gold;
Peace wav'd the influence of her genial tie,
And, of all mortal crimes the worst—a lie.'

The images in those which we shall next select, are drawn with
true

true poetic fire; but we cannot perceive their connection with the rest of the work, nor can we easily explain who these good ladies are. The first appears to be Nature, but in no very appropriated form.

‘ See the sad dame, in wild disorder stand,
Her feet yet ling’ring on the furthest strand,
Catch the long sound that cuts the liquid way,
And gently beck’ning says, (or seems to say)
“ Here in soft bow’s seraphic visions smile,
Here banish’d genius weeps his Britain’s isle;
Thy vot’ries here reprove their parent’s stay,
And the rocks murmur—“ Goddess, come away !”
Smote with the sound, the list’ning mourner hears,
Darts her wild gaze, and answers back with tears;
Her image banish’d on the dreary shore,
Neglected charms and scenes belov’d no more;
Nor in the classic feature fondly trace
Bursts of the soul and charms of native grace.’

The author’s meaning is very often obscure, and the following lines are a little in the style in which we suppose our western neighbours to shine conspicuously :

‘ Hush’d his loud wants, bade anguish cease to roar,
And wake *in* dreams, that all his wants were o’er.’

Peter’s correspondent seems very imperfectly acquainted with him. Sometimes he is represented as a physician, sometimes as an apothecary, but in either character he must be very unsuccessful; for to write of a physician without insinuating that his practice decayed by the death of his patients, ‘ would be *out of rule*.’ But at all events he is supposed to have left Cornwall for debt, to be very poor and very wicked. Our author does not discover much genius in his satire, and his lines are often nugæ canoræ. He seems to have felt, or to dread the force of Peter’s rod, and studious to depreciate his value that he may seem to despise its effects.

Oenone to Paris: an Epistle of Ovid. To which is added, an Elegy of Shenstone, translated into Latin Elegiac Verse. 8vo. 1s. Lewis. 1790.

Neither the Latin nor English translation is liable to much censure in any respect, nor unfortunately do they possess so much merit as to demand our unqualified approbation. The English verse generally flows in a smooth and easy manner, and the Latin is sometimes pure and classical; but we could produce exceptions to both. On the whole, we think the author, who probably has not long quitted some grammar-school, more successful in his Latin than his English poetry.

Modern Poets, a Satire. To which is prefixed, a Dedication to the Monthly, the Critical, and the Analytical Reviewers. 4to. 2s. Ridgway. 1791.

‘O ye, who, high enthron’d, omniscient sit,
And rule, supreme, this wicked world of wit,
Who, mid the clouds, are veil’d from mortal view,
Like Jove in pow’r, and self-created too!
‘Two urns beside your thrones have ever stood,
“*The source of evil one, and one of good.*”
One flows with warm *edulcorative* praise,
And one black censure’s bitter gall displays.
From each the cup of mortal bards ye fill,
“*Blessings to these, to those distribute ill.*”
And oft ye mix them with such artful pow’r,
We know not if the draught be sweet or sour.
Oh! in the nectar of the better *vase*,
Dip, dip your pens! the cordial drop of *praise*
Expand:—Praise, the sweet balm which never cloy,
Is still repeated with returning joys;
And, like the golden bough Eneas bore,
‘Transports the mortal to a heav’nly shore.
But, if in vain the Muse attempts to bring
The fruits of summer with the blooms of spring,
Oh! from my thirsty lips, indulgent, turn
Th’ ungrateful current of the sable urn,
Left in th’ oblivious stream with shame I fall,
And writhe in torture at the unmix’d gall.
‘As the fond lover still his mistress seeks,
Whose coy reserve no dread denial speaks;
But frowning, smiling, shuns a rude embrace,
And only yields, to years of toil, her grace;
Or, as the hero, who, by glory fir’d,
‘Too bold, advanc’d, repuls’d awhile retired;
When bright with arms, again, the campaign shines,
Again his squadrons leads, and ranks his lines.
Thus I, ye arbiters of taste! would claim
More than the lover’s bliss, or hero’s fame,
The poet’s feelings in the mutual hour,
When the pleas’d Critic owns his magic pow’r.’

That the author has some share of wit those lines which open the dedication sufficiently shew; but a much greater number might be produced as evidence of his wanting discretion in respect to the management of it. Some little incorrectnesses appear in our quotation, yet few passages can be produced in which they are so thinly sprinkled. The author supposes that an epidemic disorder prevails, which impels people of almost all conditions to write, nay converse in poetry.

‘Where

' Where can I fly for refuge from *the muse* !
 Th' Exchange, the Inns, the Court, nay e'en the fairs,
 All rave alike ! the *Venus* of the streets,
 In verse *Ovidian* her betrayer greets.'

A grave Reviewer cannot be supposed to have any acquaintance with the females alluded to in the last lines, yet we can assure the author from the most respectable authority, that he is totally misinformed in regard to these *improvisatori* ladies.—However absurd the idea he has adopted, and mode of treating it may seem, yet some lines of wit and humour intermingled, evidently show that he is not destitute of real genius ; but that genius is either immature, or extremely incorrect and irregular.

D R A M A T I C.

The Tempest ; or, the Enchanted Island. Written by Shakspeare ; with Additions from Dryden : as compiled by J. P. Kemble. And first acted at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane, October 13th, 1789. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. 1790.

The simplicity and beauty of Shakspeare's plot were destroyed, we think, by Dryden's alterations. These, however, Mr. Kemble has most injudiciously adopted ; and we cannot too severely reprehend his retaining the most ridiculous scene, where the powder of sympathy eases the wound when rubbed on the sword that inflicted it.

The Secret History of the Green Rooms, containing authentic and entertaining Memoirs of the Actors and Actresses in the three Theatres Royal. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Ridgway. 1790.

The first volume contains the ' birth, parentage, and education,' of the performers of old Drury, and the second those of Covent-Garden and the Haymarket. Some of the anecdotes are pleasing ; but we have been able to discover several mistakes, though it must be confessed that our knowledge of green-room anecdotes is not deep or extensive. In general, our author's representation is too favourable, a venial fault when it respects those

' Who live to please and please to live.'

The criticisms on the different dramatic powers of the actors are written in a cautious style ; and these volumes to some lovers of the stage will be highly entertaining.

C O N T R O V E R S I A L.

Comparison of the Opinions of Mr. Burke and Mons. Rousseau, on Government Reform, and Strictures on the Answers to Mr. Burke. 8vo. 2s. Lowndes. 1791.

The opinions of Rousseau, which in this little tract are compared

pared with those of the author of the 'Reflections,' occur in his treatise on the government of Poland. He urges the Poles strongly to amend, not to destroy; to quietly change, but to risk nothing in projects of innovation. Various other coincidences occur; yet Rousseau is deified by the national assembly, and Burke proscribed by its friends.

Strictures on some of the answers to Mr. Burke's work follow, but they are of no great importance. We are glad, however, to see one champion in the field on this side; and our author, with no inconsiderable knowledge, writes with much animation and acuteness. It is a remark of some consequence, that the answers, in their arguments respecting the rights of men, have chiefly spoken of the rights of the legislature, more strictly perhaps of the commons in the persons of their representatives.

Reflections on the Appointment of a Catholic Bishop to the London District. In a Letter to the Catholic Laity of the said District. By Henry Clifford, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons. 1791.

These Reflections relate to a dispute respecting the mode of appointing a Catholic bishop, either by an election of the clergy, or the choice of the see of Rome. It is a question in which we have not engaged, and which it is sufficient to mention. Literature or science are little interested in the decision.

An Address to the National Assembly of France; containing Strictures on Mr. Burke's Reflections on the Revolution in France. 8vo. 1s. Deighton. 1790.

Our author draws a correct outline of the former despotism of France, of the oppressions and the various other evils of its government. In some parts the picture is coloured with a gloomy pencil, but we do not perceive any thing greatly misrepresented. So far we can agree with him. The rest of his pamphlet consists of answers to some of the representations of Mr. Burke: these relate chiefly to the institution of the national assembly and its members. The provincial lawyers, and the clergy of the lower ranks, are said to possess great judgment and abilities; and in our author's opinion the choice could not have been better. The conduct of the assembly also respecting the clergy is warmly defended; and it is enough, he thinks, that they are placed at an equal distance from riches and poverty. On the whole, the pamphlet is written with a laudable warmth, or rather with a venial enthusiasm. The magnitude and importance of the change prevent our author from examining too closely what others think to be flagrant errors.

Temperate Comments upon Intemperate Reflections; or, a Review of Mr. Burke's Letter. 8vo. 2s. Walter. 1791.

With an equal share of acuteness, judgment, and discrimination,
joined

joined to an elegant and forcible style, this author is an antagonist of whom Mr. Burke need not be ashamed; and who, if he ever condescends to reply, deserves his attention. In the beginning he is singularly complaisant, and praises Mr. Burke with warmth and feeling. In the opinions respecting the constitutional part of his work also, as well as in the reprehension of the two societies, and Dr. Price, he joins with equal animation and greater severity. The subject on which the two authors differ, is in the conduct of the national assembly, for his accusation of Mr. Burke's neglecting the distinction of possession and right, is in part owing to a little mistake, and in part to a neglect of distinguishing the expedience from justice.

Our 'temperate commentator' begins with reprehending Mr. Burke's declaration that, from the complexion of the delegates, he foresaw the event. It is alledged, that this is almost impossible; but a slight reflection may suggest that, from those who have only to gain from anarchy, it is not probable that order will result. We mean not to say that this was the fact, but it seems to have been the view of Mr. Burke. The errors, the confusion, and some other defects in their conduct, our author excuses from the urgency and the necessity of their situation, an excuse which time and experience can only substantiate; but the time which has elapsed since these confusions have been admitted, when the remedy of the evil was not connected with the great change in the constitution, leads us to despair of amendment.

'From this time (July 14th) we must date the commencement of tumult; and when we reflect upon the just resentment inspired by fear of bloody persecution, the indignant vexation inspired by the threatened disappointment of those flattering expectations of redress which the meeting of *the states* had encouraged, and the exaggeration of the misery endured from preconcerted famine, we cannot be surprised that many enormities were committed, and that a few sacrifices were made to popular frenzy. It ought rather to be matter of amazement, that the mischief has been so inconsiderable, and that so little blood has been shed. There never was a revolution so much marked by forbearance towards unwarrantable opposition:—there never was any considerable change of government effected with so few concomitant circumstances of horror and disgust. The unequalled mildness with which the whole has been conducted, must be a source of particular satisfaction to the friends of humanity. — It would have received the warmest commendation of Mr. Burke, if his abhorrence of one or two principal incidents, had not raised up a prejudice, through the magnifying medium of which every thing has appeared monstrous and deformed.'

The attack on the clergy the 'commentator' defends with great ingenuity

ingenuity and address, by representing that the deficit of five millions could not be supplied by retrenchment, and that it was allowable to take from those who had carefully avoided the public burthens, and never offered to contribute to the necessities of the state, till they saw that some sacrifice was necessary to save the whole. We think, however, that he has not proved that enough is left to incite emulation, or to reward learning and talents. The mode of representation also he defends with great ingenuity, though he seems not to be aware of the observations and objections of M. Calonne. Mr. Burke's contradictions are commented on with great acuteness and success. On the whole, we think this a very able reply; but we must confess, that in our opinion, the principal and best parts of Mr. Burke's work stand unshaken.

Answer to a Letter from a Welsh Freeholder to the Right Rev. Samuel Lord Bishop of St. David's, on the Charge he lately delivered to the Clergy of his Diocese. By a Clergyman of the Diocese of St. David's. 8vo. 6d. Williams. 1790.

We reviewed the letter alluded to in our last volume, p. 451. and were pleased with the Freeholder's address rather than his Christian spirit. The clergyman of the diocese of St. David's, with a truly zealous, some may perhaps add a national, warmth, speaks in general terms, instead of replying to particular passages. The Freeholder was coolly ironical, the Clergyman is violently angry, and the classics as well as the stage, (we mean the mountebank's stage) are introduced to supply invective. A letter in defence of Dr. Horsley, perhaps from the same author, is added also from the Gloucester Journal. But we are obliged to add, that we honour this author's zeal more than his prudence. The Freeholder may perhaps 'wish' him a living 'and sit still.'

P O L I T I C A L.

Faction Unmask'd, by the Evidence of Truth; in a Letter from an Old Member of the late, to a New Member of the present Parliament. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ridgway. 1790.

This pamphlet is a cento, collected from the dregs of all that has been written against government since the accession of his present majesty. The basis of the author's observations is a secret junto, which seems perpetually to haunt his imagination. The various administrations, during the period above mentioned, are slightly pourtrayed, but always with a hand which evinces the writer's partiality. We are perfectly sick of these political oglios, which, under the pretext of throwing light on the history of the times, are calculated only to inflame the prejudices, and mislead the understanding of the public. Through the whole of the pamphlet, we meet with nothing so certain, as that the title which the author has chosen is emblematical of the purpose he betrays.

The Substance of the Speech of the Marquis of Lansdown, in the House of Lords, on the 14th of December, 1790; on the Subject of the Convention with Spain, which was signed on the 28th of October, 1790. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. 1790.

This Speech relates more to the politics of Europe in general, than to the convention with Spain. In respect of the latter, his lordship seems not to be without apprehensions; but we believe him to be too well acquainted with the history of mankind, not to reflect, at the same time, that apprehensions which proceed entirely from speculation, prove often illusive.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Remarks on the Advertisement of the Committee for the Abolition of the Slave-Trade, inserted in the Public Papers. 8vo. 2s. Egertons. 1790.

The report of the committee was coloured with all the eagerness, all the enthusiasm which might be expected from men zealous in a cause which they considered as that of humanity and religion. Our author is acrimonious in his reply, and though occasionally too warm, suggests some arguments of importance. He seems to speak with the feelings of a man who is apprehensive of personal injury, and indeed while these apprehensions have so probable a foundation, we cannot blame his severities.

Elegant Tales, Histories, and Epistles, of a moral tendency, on Love, Friendship, Matrimony, Conjugal Felicity, Jealousy, Constancy, Magnanimity, Chearfulness, and other important Subjects. By the Author of Woman; or, Historical Sketches of the Fair Sex. 12mo. 4s. Kearsley. 1791.

One little word is omitted in this voluminous title, viz. *selected*; for the whole, reader, is taken from periodical essays, novels, and magazines. Even the Spectator has furnished the story of Eginhart. But the selection is not injudicious, nor is the volume unpleasing or uninstrucive.

Thoughts on the present Scheme of extensive Taxation. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale. 1790.

The author of this frivolous pamphlet might, with great propriety, have kept his Thoughts to himself; for we learn nothing more from him than that the taxes are necessary; that they will not be of long continuance; and that it is right they should be paid.

The Trial at large of Ed. Lowe and Wm. Jobbins, before the Recorder of London, at the Sessions House in the Old Bailey. 8vo. 1s. Butters. 1790.

These two men are the incendiaries, who were convicted upon the evidence of Flindall, formerly their associate, of wilfully setting

ting fire to a house in Aldersgate-street. The guilt of these criminals was of the most aggravated nature. They had deliberately formed a plan of practising their horrible expedient in different parts of the capital, with the view of procuring for themselves the opportunities of committing depredation. How happy it is for the community that they lived not to accomplish their designs!

The whole Proceedings in the Cause of Lefty against Mills. On the Legality of demanding Half a Crown for noting Bills of Exchange on the Day of Payment; determined against the hitherto established Custom. By E. Hodgson, Professor of Short-hand. 8vo. 1s. Butters. 1790.

This cause relates to the legality of demanding half a crown for noting bills of exchange on the day of payment. It was determined against the hitherto established custom, at a trial before Lord Kenyon, in the Court of King's Bench, on the third of December last.

The Beauties of the Creation; or, a new Moral System of Natural History; displayed in the most singular, curious, and beautiful Quadrupeds, Birds, Insects, Trees, and Flowers. 12mo. 5s. bound. Riley. 1790.

To inspire youth with humanity towards the brute creation, and make them early acquainted with the wonderful works of the Divine Creator, there is no kind of reading so well adapted as that of natural history. For this purpose, the compiler of the work now before us has, we think, made a very judicious selection. The first part contains the description and history of quadrupeds; the second, of birds; the third, of insects; and the fourth, of trees, shrubs, &c. The following account of the ant may serve as a specimen:

Not to impose upon our readers those fables which have been related of this remarkable insect, we shall confine ourselves to the most authentic accounts, and to our own observations, in what we shall briefly mention respecting the ant. Sanctorius says, when the ants carry any corn to their habitations, they carry it, exactly in form and intention, as they do bits of wood, for the construction of their dwellings merely. For what purpose should they provide corn for the winter, when they pass that season without motion? But, from what we have lately observed ourselves, we rather imagine this error arose from some persons having seen them dragging a number of their aurelias, which they have been removed by a hoe or spade, again to their repositories; for these aurelias are exactly of the colour of a grain of wheat. The great prudence ants discover is in sheltering themselves from cold, which when severe, almost deprives them of motion.

At the beginning of March, if the weather be warm, they go about

about in search of nourishment. If corn be thrown to ants, they will remove it from place to place, by some dragging, others lifting, and two or three more pushing forward the weighty masses. A grain of wheat must be considered in proportion to their size and strength. They have the precaution to make a bank, near six inches high, above the entrance; and to make several roads, to go out and in, by what may be called their terrace-walk. From May or June, they work until the season's change discontinues their industry. This labour is entirely for the preservation of their brood, which is produced during the fine weather. When they attack fruit, they tear it into small bits, and thus is each ant enabled to carry home his provender. Liquors which are sweet, they have a mode of saving, and carrying some for their young. They send their foragers to seek for food: if one of them proves successful in finding some, he returns to inform the republic, and immediately sallies from their town, to capture the prize. To prevent any delay, obstruction, or confusion, they have two tracks; one for the party loaded, and the other for that which are going to load themselves. Should any be killed, some of them instantly remove the slain to a distance. When provisions are scarce, they portion them according to their present and future wants.

'A nest of ants is a small well-regulated republic, united by peace, unanimity, good understanding, and mutual assistance. Great police in their little labours, prevents among them those disorders which frequently embarrass and perplex the happiness of even man, who assumes to himself the title and consequence of lord of the creation. Each ant has its task assigned it; whilst one removes a particle of mould, another is returning home to work. They never think of eating until all their task is performed. Within their common, but subterraneous hall, which is about a foot deep, they assemble, form their social communities, shelter themselves from bad weather, deposit their eggs, and preserve their aurelias; which, resembling grains of corn, as was observed before, has caused many to mistake them for their granaries.'

The two first of these little volumes are occupied entirely with the subjects above mentioned. But the third is devoted to ancient history; and contains a concise account of the principal events in the most distinguished states of Greece. We shall not give any extract from this volume; but cannot omit observing, that it is executed in a manner suitable to the readers for whom it is intended.

On the whole, the work deserves our commendation, both for its design and utility. It will prove not only instructive, but extremely entertaining to young minds; whom it will likewise gratify by the cuts which are prefixed to each article.

Memoirs of the Life and gallant Exploits of the Old Highlander, Serjeant Donald Macleod, who, having returned wounded, with the Corpse of General Wolfe, from Quebec, was admitted an Out-Pensioner of Chelsea Hospital; in 1759; and is now in the Hundred and Third Year of his Age. 8vo. 2s. Debrett. 1791.

It appears from this narrative that serjeant Macleod is a cadet of the family of Ulinish, in the Isle of Skye. At the time when his father and mother married, the former was only in his sixteenth year, and the latter in the fourteenth year of her age. The first fruit of their union was the hero of the present Memoirs, who was born on the twentieth of June 1688. The life of this brave veteran is distinguished by several incidents of an interesting nature, for which we must refer our readers to the narrative. The only recommendation we shall suggest in favour of the Old Highlander, is, what his honest spirit will not allow him to say for himself, *Date obolum Belisario.*

The Monster at large: or, the Innocence of Rhynewick Williams vindicated. In a Letter to Sir Francis Buller, Bart. By Theophilus Swift, Esq. 8vo. 3s. Ridgway. 1790.

Mr. Swift has been at great pains in endeavouring to vindicate Rhynewick Williams from the atrocious charges produced against him. We have only to observe, that after a solemn trial, the evidence of his guilt proved satisfactory to two juries; and though the counsel displays much ingenuity, as well as great zeal, there seems to us to be no sufficient reason for questioning the justice of the verdict.

The History of Little Dick. Written by Little John. Small 12mo. 1s. Harrison. 1790.

Little Dick is a great rogue, and his villainy is too artfully glossed by agreeable manners. In all the misadventures of his youth, we are still told, that Little Dick was a favourite. This principle, in our opinion, prevents this book from being a proper one to put into the hands of children.

Philosophical Amusements; or, easy and instructive Recreations for young People. 12mo. 1s. Johnson. 1790.

A pleasing little work, in a clear perspicuous style! The experiments, in other words the tricks, are well calculated to excite the curiosity of youth, and lead them to more strictly philosophical investigations.

Letters on the Manners of the French, and on the Follies and Extragancies of the Times. Written by an Indian at Paris. 2 Vols. 6s. sewed. Robinsons. 1790.

At the moment, when the phantom was passing away to give place to beings of another kind, under the influence of a differ-

ent government, our entertaining author catches up the pencil, and delineates the outline of the manners that are passing away, filling up occasionally the most interesting parts. We have, in England, our Persian Letters, and various descriptions of life and manners apparently from disinterested evidences of our customs, travellers of credit, who seemingly possess the faculties of acute observation, of attentive discrimination and faithful description. In our language, they are vehicles of political information, of satire or instruction. The Letters before us are chiefly descriptive of manners, at the æra immediately preceding the Revolution. They are lively, acute, ingenious, and interesting; and the translator seems to have infused a spirit of originality into his language, while he cloathed the thoughts in different words.

The original author has not however been happy in the dramatic part of his work. His Indian seems to have been an attendant on the embassy from Tippo Saib; yet, in a few months, he receives repeated letters from Indostan, and answers to his own epistles. If it be contended, that he is no where mentioned as connected with the ambassadors, we may observe, that he limits his observations to the period of their stay in Paris. Though many of the principal persons of Indostan are Mahometans, this is far from being the religion of the country. Yet our author speaks of the Koran, as the source of instruction to the whole country. Indeed, in many respects, his opinions, his observations, and manners are not those of an Indian; and he speaks of places, which he could not have visited in his journey. These defects will not, however, lessen the entertainment of general readers; and we have already observed that we value his descriptions at a higher rate, though their intrinsic merit is not inconsiderable, because the manners he describes will, probably, not be much longer seen.

The Memoire of M. Louis-Philip Joseph (Duke) D'Orleans; accused of High-Treason, before the Tribunal of the Chatelet in Paris. Translated from the Original, published at Paris, by the Duke of Orleans. 8vo. 2s. Stockdale. 1790.

This translation, which appears to be executed with equal fidelity and spirit, is introduced by a very short and judicious preface. The Memoir itself principally relates to the defence of M. d'Orleans; but it is not, to us, of great importance, whether on the morning of the 6th of October he was at Paris or Versailles. If he did not *personally* appear, which still admits of some doubt, he seems to have been instrumental in urging the king to fly to Metz. We have looked carefully over this Memoir, to see whether any thing occurs relating to the attack on the queen's bed, and the seemingly premeditated assassination of

the queen; but we find nothing to support either suspicion. The narrative is, in every part, sufficiently shocking, and those who read the various authentic accounts of the different transactions in this revolution, must at least think, that our neighbours have bought their liberty unnecessarily dear.

Memoirs of the New Insect: interspersed with Sketches of other singular Characters. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Ridgway. 1790.

A piece of personal satire, the form of which we must reprehend, however despicable the subject of it may be. It is in every view breaking a butterfly on the wheel.

An Examination of Precedents and Principles; by which it appears that an Impeachment is determined by a Dissolution of Parliament. By Edward Christian, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale. 1790.

When, in a late debate on this subject, the lawyers differed wholly from the politicians, it was supposed that the former wished to restrict the constitutional to the legal principles. Our author, with great force of argument, endeavours to prove that they are the same, and that an impeachment is determined by a dissolution of parliament. To see all the lawyers on the same side, shows that the question, so far as it is a legal one, is at least clear: but we own Mr. Christian has not convinced us that the principles of each do not occasionally vary. If it were expedient or proper to engage in the enquiry in this place, we should adduce some historical arguments, in which we think it would appear, that the law has been founded on the constitution, and connected with it only so far as their mutual influence was supposed to extend. The late decision of the house of commons, which we attended to with peculiar care, seems to have been influenced by two circumstances; one, that if the impeachment was determined by the dissolution, it was renouncing the privileges of impeachment, when the opinion of the house differed from that of the minister or king; the second, that the house was only the instrument to conduct the trial, since the accusation was in the name of the commons of England. Whatever became of the house, the commons remained: it might be the same or different; its number or its organization might be altered, the people of England were unchanged. These arguments convinced us of the propriety of the decision, and they are yet unimpeached, notwithstanding the great extent of legal and constitutional information displayed in the examination before us.

Animal Magnetism examined, in a Letter to a Country Gentleman. By John Martin. 12mo. 1s. Stockdale. 1790.

Our author endeavours to explain the secret, and to detect the wild extravagant professions of this new mode of deception. Perhaps he may be right; but it requires no luminous crisis to prophecy

phcey that the duration of the imposture cannot be long. If, however, this pamphlet should be the source of a controversy, we purpose to give some farther account of it. It is written with great candour and good sense.

A New Tale of a Tub, written for the Delight and Instruction of every British Subject in particular, and all the World in general.
12mo. 2s. sewed. Ridgway. 1790.

Without reaching the inimitable irony of the original 'Tale,' the author has brought his narrative more nearly to the model of another work, in which Swift had some share, the History of John Bull. On the whole it displays much humour: in different parts the Shandean style is imitated with success, and the supposed notes of Warburton, Johnson, and Steevens, in their peculiar manner, adds to the entertainment derived from this little jeu d'esprit. The author might with more success have adopted a different plan, for independent of the great merit of Swift, which makes a comparison that is unavoidable, disadvantageous, this mode of satire has lost much of its attraction.—We shall select, however, a short specimen: a description of Will Whig, which is in many respects excellent.

'As to the parentage of Will, there are many disputes among the antiquaries and genealogists. Some say that the family was originally of Greek extraction; others say Roman*. These reports, perhaps, arose from ignorant people, from the circumstance that Will was a great Greek and Latin scholar.

'Some orientalists will have it that the family was Tyrian; others Carthaginian†; but oriental scholars are fond of vague conjecture, and seldom sacrifice to good sense.

'After much lucubration and great examination of this subject, I am inclined to think that the Whig family came to this country from the woods of Germany. Their features and manners agreed so perfectly with the description of the ancient Germans, given us by that wag Tacitus, that I have little doubt upon this score; and the constant tradition of the family confirms this idea. If the reader will not believe me, let him, to use the style of Dr. Bentley, go and think for himself and be d—d. I remember I once convinced a great antiquary, that the Whigs were of German extract, after all my other arguments had failed, by telling him

* Because the horrible essence of Whiggism is deducted, by many, from the revivescence of erudition, and the liberate spirit of the Greek and Roman authors. JOHNSON.

† Certainly the latter government was considerably democratic. See Polybius, who imputes the fall of Carthage to its democracy; and the rise of Rome to its aristocracy. WARBURTON.

that Will Whig always used both hands to buckle his shoes, as the Germans generally do *. See —'s Travels.'

Oratio Anniversaria in Theatro Collegii Regalis Medicorum Londinensium, ex Harveii Instituto habita, A. D. M.DCC.XC. Fesfo divi Lucæ, a Joanne Ash, M. D. Coll. Reg. Med. Lond. Soc. R. et S. A. Socio. 4to. 1s. Robson. 1790.

Dr. Ash, a veteran of seventy years, seems to have been strongly solicited to undertake the office of delivering the annual oration; and we perceive no marks of decay in this offspring of his maturer age. There is a dignity and a force in the sentiment; a classical energy and perspicuity in the language. The subject is nearly the usual one, a commemoration of the founders and the benefactors of the college. To these he now joins the late Dr. Adington, and pays him a tribute of friendship and esteem. We have read this oration with great satisfaction, and think it much superior to many annual attempts of a similar kind.

General Regulations for Inspection and Controul of all the Prisons, together with the Rules, Orders, and Bye Laws, for the Government of the Gaol and Penitentiary House, for the County of Gloucester. 8vo. 2s. Cadell. 1790.

In many respects these Regulations appear to be severe; but the severity consists in the strict solitude: in others they are marked by singular prudence and judgment; and, though we might perhaps have offered some different advice in particular circumstances, on the whole the Regulations deserve both applause and imitation.

A Sketch of the Life of Dr. Duncan Liddel, of Aberdeen, Professor of Mathematics and of Medicine in the University of Helmstadt. 4to. 2s. Evans. 1790.

Dr. Liddel was a liberal benefactor to the Marischall College in Aberdeen, and this grateful tribute to his memory is publicly offered by one of the professors of that college. It reflects equal lustre on his industry, his talents, and his judgment. In this place we need only observe, that Dr. Liddell was for many years professor of mathematics, and afterwards of medicine at Helmstadt; and, after residing twenty-eight years in Germany, he returned to Scotland, and died in the beginning of the seventeenth century (1613), at the age of fifty-two. His writings are almost wholly medical, and in his system he was a follower of Galen.

* An argument must be accommodated to the auditor. *Intellectus est in intelligente, ad modum intelligentis.* WARBURTON.

Reponses à Démêler : ou, Essai d'une Maniere d'exercer l'Attention. On y a joint divers Morceaux, qui ont pour d'instruire ou d'amuser les jeunes Personnes. Par Madame de la Fite. 8vo. 2s. sewed. Murray. 1790.

This is a pleasing little work, calculated to exercise the mind and keep the attention alive. The questions and answers are arranged indiscriminately, and relate to morals, to history, and religion. Perhaps, however, the key would have been more properly placed at the end, when it might occasionally have been separated from the work. At present, like a Latin version to a Greek classic, it will be too often consulted by the indolent and careless.

Letters written in France, in the Summer 1790, to a Friend in England; containing various Anecdotes relative to the French Revolution; and Memoirs of Mons. and Madame Du F—. By Helen Maria Williams. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Cadell.

Eh bien mademoiselle ! Vous etes donc devenue democrate, & ne dites rien que l'assemblée nationale—Cela ce peut ; mais pour les femmes etre folles de *liberté*—Ma foi, mademoiselle, vous ne vous marierez jamais.—But, in plain English, and in *sober sadness*, for we do not mean to condemn our author to the gloomy solitude of celibacy, miss H. M. Williams seems to be a little too fond of revolutions, though if, in her charming little nouvelle, M. du F. had owed his deliverance to a decree of the national assembly, we should have thought this charitable act might have covered a multitude of sins. It might have happened, however, as well under any administration.

Our author gives a pleasing picture of the solemnity of the federation ; and her description of different parts of France is picturesque and animated. Her account of the national assembly, of Pere Gerard, of madame de Sillery, once madame de Genlis, and now sunk down to plain madam Brulart, no longer a marchioness, and of the present duc de Chartres, are highly pleasing ; and we have not for a long time met with a little work from which we have received more entertainment. As to the political question, nous sommes parfaitement d'accord avec mademoiselle—‘ we had better leave it to the decision of posterity.’ We shall select from this work two little anecdotes of different kinds.

‘ But let us return to madame Brulart, who wears at her breast a medallion made of a stone of the Bastille polished. In the middle of the medallion, *Liberté* was written in diamonds ; above was marked in diamonds, the planet that shone on the 14th of July ; and below was seen the moon, of the size she appeared that memorable night. The medallion was set in a branch of laurel, composed

composed of emeralds, and tied at the top with the national cockade, formed of brilliant stones of the three national colours.'

'M. de Chartres, she tells us, after having seen the precious relics of the abbey, the square buckler, and the short sword found in Ireland near the body of the well-known dragon, whose destruction is attributed to the prowess of St. Michael, Mons. de Chartres was conducted, through many labyrinths, to the subterraneous parts of the edifice; where he was shewn a wooden cage, which was made by order of Louis the Fourteenth, for the punishment of an unfortunate wit, who had dared to ridicule his conquests in Holland, no sooner gained than lost. Mons. de Chartres beheld with horror this instrument of tyranny, in which prisoners were still frequently confined; and, expressing in very strong terms his indignation, he was told, that, as a prince of the blood, he had a right, if he thought proper, to order the cage to be destroyed. Scarcely were the words pronounced, when the young prince seized a hatchet, gave the first stroke himself to this execrable machine, waited to see it levelled with the ground, and thus may claim the glory of having, even before the demolition of the Bastile, begun the French revolution.'

We are sorry, however, to find our young lady so idle as to have left the translation of the French quotations to some incompetent assistant. If she had attended to it herself she would undoubtedly have explained 'Mons. Rabreau vaut deux de Mi--rabreau,' even by printing it in the manner we have done, for *mi* is an abbreviation of *demi*. In p. 111. too, she would not have weakened the force of the people's reply to the curé. Vous etes une assemblée d'anes, exclaimed he—Oui, Mons. le Curé, disoient ils; et vous en etes le pasteur—'You are a parcel of asses.' Yes, sir, they replied, and you are the shepherd. In this way, with no great violence, the equivoque might have been preserved; but, by translating pasteur, 'preacher,' as in the page before us, it is wholly lost. These, by the way, are not the only instances of inadvertency.

An Elucidation of the Articles of Impeachment preferred by the last Parliament against Warren Hastings, Esq. late Governor-General of Bengal. By Ralph Broome, Esq. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Stockdale. 1790.

To Mr. Broome we are supposed to be indebted for the humorous letters of Simkin to his relations in Wales, on the subject of Mr. Hastings' trials; and, if his vein of humour seemed to be in some degree exhausted in the last part, we may suspect that his mind may have been more attentively engaged in the work before us, to admit of the sportive sallies of the Muse. We wish-
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ed to consider this Elucidation at length, for it is a work that has been much wanted. The author, who has long resided in India, is well acquainted with the language and customs of Indostan, and tries Mr. Hastings on those statutes to which, in his conduct as governor-general, he is almost exclusively amenable, the usages, the laws, and the government of the country over which he presided. In this enquiry, Mr. Broome necessarily withdraws the delusive veil with which oratory and eloquence had obscured the subject, and with equal judgment and impartiality elucidates many transactions of which we had before only an imperfect knowledge. We knew that Mr. Hastings had saved the British empire in India, by exertions equally astonishing and unexpected: it remained for our author to show, that his government was less rigorous than that of the best emperor in the happiest days of Indostan. The very miscellaneous nature of this volume, and the undecided state in which the trial now rests, alone prevents us from examining it at greater length; but, from the candour, the apparent impartiality, and the judgment of Mr. Broome, we think his work deserves very particular attention from Mr. Hastings' accusers and his judges; accusers who apply to the conduct of Hindoos the morality of Europe, to political states that of individuals, and erect tributary zemindars, for their own purposes, into independent sovereigns. As so much has been said respecting the Begums and their sufferings, we shall extract our author's familiar representation of the fact.

‘ But after all, when we bring it down to common life, and compare it to things to which we are all accustomed, it amounts by comparison to this only: a lady of very high rank, next to royalty, a duchess for example, at the death of her husband gets possession of all his ready money, bills, bonds, &c. to a very large amount: she refuses to divide with her son, and keeps it all upon the plea of right, a right founded on possession and nothing else. The son does not choose to go to extremities with his mother, and borrows as much as he can, with a promise, not a design, of repayment. At last he gives way to over-ruling persuasion, almost amounting to compulsion, accepts a farther sum, with a remission of what he had already borrowed, and renounces his claim to the remainder. Afterwards, the party that in a manner compelled the compromise, withdraws his influence, and the son, considering his claim no longer barred, takes from the mother what he ought to have had years before. Where is the injustice in this? Not where the managers place it. It lies in Mr. Bristow, who made such bad terms for the Nabob, and if he did not make better for himself, it would reflect on his judgment; and in the Begum, who would not divide her husband's

husband's property with his son. In those two lay injustice, and in the Nabob lay extreme folly, unless he went upon a supposition that he could still make it his own by loan, or seizure, when he liked.'

Mr. Broome, in some parts of his political reasoning, respecting the constitution of this kingdom, seems to be mistaken. He appears to consider the three branches of the legislature as a despotic monarch, and to make little difference between their acts and those of an individual; without reflecting, that collective bodies are less likely to be hasty and capricious, that the objects of the three estates are necessarily different, and often opposite, and above all, that one estate is delegated only for a given time, and therefore, in reality, the nation itself.

C O R R E S P O N D E N C E.

Oxonienfis' obliging communications shall be particularly attended to.

WE are sorry that we have missed *Vir Medicus*, and occasioned him so much trouble: the paper alluded to is certainly in the *Medical Observations and Enquiries*. Murray's account of *Opium* is in the second volume of the *Apparatus Medicaminum*, p. 215. as usual very full and instructive; and the author we alluded to, is *Waldschmidt Invent. circa Opium*. *Vir Medicus*' other questions are too numerous to be noticed in this place, for we must again hint, that this part of our work is destined only for questions which relate to the conduct of the Journal.

WE have received the letter from Oxford, and can assure our numerous readers in that university (our Correspondent's signature is '*Nam turba fumus*') that we feel the necessity of an Index, and design very soon to undertake it. The want of a proper period at which to stop has delayed this very useful undertaking so long; the want of a $\pi\theta\ \tilde{\omega}$ our author will recollect only stopped Archimedes in moving the world. At present, as he properly observes, a period is found, and he may be assured that the Index shall not be delayed.

CRITICAL REVIEW.

 For FEBRUARY, 1791.

*Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. Vol. II. 4to.
18s. Boards. Cadell. 1790.*

AS a collection of literary memoirs this volume of the Society's Transactions possesses much merit; but since general or indiscriminate praise cannot be acceptable either to the Society or our readers, we shall proceed immediately to the papers of this class.

Mr. Tytler, professor of civil history in Edinburgh, gives in the first memoir an account of some extraordinary structures on the tops of the hills in the Highlands; with remarks on the progress of the arts among the ancient inhabitants of Scotland. These structures are the vitrified forts which we have often had occasion to mention. It has of late become a fashionable opinion that the hills are volcanic, and the supposed vitrified forts remains of ancient volcanos. We know not by what arguments this opinion is supported, nor whether the whyn dykes, an appearance in the West of Scotland, or the North of England have been brought to support it *. From our author's examination, however, of one particular hill (Craig Phadrick), near Inverness, it is highly probable that these structures are not the consequences of subterraneous fire. The hill is, at first appearance, volcanic; and, though it may have been raised by fire, the burnt walls on the top are probably artificial, for the hill itself is composed of a mass of rounded pebbles, sticking in a bed of clay, or, as we suspect, hardened sand. The access to the top is a laboured work: but this argument is of less importance; for, if the walls were volcanic, it is highly probable that advantage would be taken of the inaccessible sides, and the security which these natural dykes afforded in times of danger and distress. The stones on one part of the precipice, designed to roll down on any besiegers, may have also been a subsequent contrivance: but, from every consideration, it is probable that these walls are artificial. Our author refers them to an æra when mortar was not known, and sup-

* We find some account of a paper in the Philosophical Transactions for 1777, art. xx. in support of this opinion, in our XLVth volume, p. 354

poses that these unstable materials were compacted together by wood and ozers; and that when fire, the most ready cause of destruction, was employed by the conquerors, the vitrification was accidental: the walls were consequently never in any better state than at present. On one steep side of the hill they are not vitrified; perhaps, as our author supposes, because they required no additional strength from wood, and therefore were not exposed to the cause which produced this change in the rest.

This explanation is very ingenious, but we suspect Mr. Tytler goes too deep for the cause. It must have been obvious that sea-sand would soon fuse and promote the fusion of other bodies, and that loose rounded stones could not easily be fixed by any cement, except in the artificial building in caissons, which even the Romans did not *then* employ in the northern parts of Britain. It is therefore more probable that, when wood was plenty, their walls were raised to an inconsiderable height, and hardened by wood burnt round them: the materials are all vitrifiable, and the degree of vitrification is not so great but it may be accounted for in this way. We have more reason to be of this opinion, because the rock was not capable of defence with the materials in their hands by any other method. Our author thinks that these structures were erected before the use of mortar was known; in other words, before the Romans had any fixed stations in North Britain; that is previous to the reign of Antoninus Pius, A. D. 140, when the Romans had *Castella* and *Præsidia*, in the neighbourhood of Inverness. The *Castra Alata* of Ptolemy, the *Ptorotone* of Richard, Mr. Tytler supposes is the present Burgh of Moray. The circle on the fortified hill of Dun Jardel, upon Lochness, usually styled Druidical, our author thinks of an early period, not connected with the Druids, who, in his opinion, came from Gaul. In reality, we have no proofs of Druidism being ever established in Scotland: various reasons lead us to think it never was the religion of the Caledonians. If it was not the peculiar system of Britain, it was of Celtic origin, and driven by the Belgæ from Gaul, making its last efforts in the north-west of England, and the adjacent islands.

Art. II. Remarks on some Passages of the sixth Book of the *Eneid*. By James Beattie, LL. D. F. R. S. Edin. and Professor of Logic and Moral Philosophy in the Marischal College, Aberdeen. Read by Mr. Dalzel, Secretary, March 19, 1787. —The sixth book of the *Eneid*, though too pointedly borrowed from Ulysses' descent into the infernal regions, is yet full of sublime and elegant allegory, adorned often with the most polished language. The fancy of Warburton, that it contained the outline of the Eleusinian mysteries, cautiously guarded from vulgar

vulgar eyes, is at present little attended to. The object of our author is to give a plain account of Virgil's theology, making the poet his own interpreter, without trusting to Plato, or the reveries of commentators. Dr. Beattie first adverts to bishop Warburton's system; but it ought to be noticed, that various passages in ancient authors mention that the representation of the state of the dead was among the first things explained to the initiated, and that there appear to be some peculiar difficulties in different parts of this book. With all due respect therefore to the author of the 'Critical Observations,' whose excellent work we considered at some length in our xxxth vol. p. 285, we suspect, that though Virgil did not discover the Eleusinian mysteries in this part of the poem, he glanced occasionally at their doctrines. Horace was initiated at the time when he was still an Epicurean, and some of the Roman youth of the same sect would probably not be scrupulous in revealing what they might think a foreign superstition. Virgil might, therefore, in his early days, for, like Horace, he seems to have been once an Epicurean, have easily obtained some knowledge of the Isoteric doctrines of Ceres' mysteries, and might think a cautious allusion to them admissible, though he, as well as Horace, was no longer of this more dissolute sect. We know not whether in the poem, as read to his friends, the allusions might not be more pointed, and have drawn from Horace the denunciation recorded in the second ode of the third book, or whether they may not have been designed to terrify Virgil from being so open as he has been, while the unfinished state of the poem, and his eagerness to destroy it, may be adduced in support of this opinion. In reality, we mean not to adduce these as arguments, but merely to show how insecure reasoning of every kind is on so doubtful a subject.

Dr. Beattie proceeds in an analysis of the sixth book of the *Æneid*; but we meet with little embarrassment before we arrive at the lustration even of the souls of good men. *Quisque suos patimur manes*, &c. in the speech of Anchises, has been always considered as a most difficult passage. We shall transcribe what our author has said on this subject.

'That the souls of good men, who were to have an eternal abode in Elysium, were previously obliged to undergo purgation by suffering, is not expressly declared, but may be inferred from what Anchises says, "*Quisque suos patimur manes*:" every one of *us* undergoes what is inflicted on him by his *manes*;" that is, by those deities of the nether world who were the dispensers of expiatory punishment. This is the original, or at least the most usual sense of the word *manes*, which, however, sometimes denotes metonymically

mically the infernal regions in general, and sometimes, but more rarely, the souls or shades who inhabited those regions. In Tartarus, it does not appear that the manes had any thing to do. The dispensers of punishment in that dreadful place were Tisiphone and her sister-furies. The Manes must have been a gentler sort of beings. Some derive the word from *manus* or *manis*, which they say (on what authority I know not) is an old adjective signifying *good*. The invocations of the Manes practised at funerals, the altars that were erected to them, and those monumental inscriptions which began with the words *Dis Manibus*, were all, no doubt, intended as acts of worship, or as compliments, to these deities, and supposed to incline them to mercy in their treatment of the persons deceased, whose souls were now in their hands in purgatory. Horace tells us, that the Manes, as well as the gods above, might be rendered placable by song—"Carminibus superi placantur, carminibus anes." But the furies were inexorable and merciless—"Nesciaque humanis precibus mansuescere corda." And I do not find that worship, or any other honours, were, except by witches, paid them, though to mother Midnight, whose daughters they were, sacrifice was occasionally performed. Ovid says, indeed, that they relented on hearing the song of Orpheus; but assures us it was for the first time. Virgil, in his account of that affair, says only, that they were astonished.

Here I cannot but remark how absurd it is for us to begin an epitaph with the words *Dis Manibus*, or the letters *D. M.* which oftener than once I have seen on a modern tombstone. Such an exordium may be classical; but, in a Christian church-yard, an invocation to Proserpine would not be more incongruous. Addison did well, when he advised the writers of his time not to sacrifice their catechism to their poetry.

I said, that the Manes seem to have had nothing to do in Tartarus. I am not ignorant, however, that Rueus and the common Dictionaries affirm, that the word sometimes denotes the furies, and quote as an authority, "Ignoscenda quidem, scirent si ignoscere manes." But this is not sufficient authority. That verse of Virgil relates to Orpheus looking behind him, when conducting his wife to the upper world; a fault, or infatuation, which was to be punished, not by the scourge of the furies, but by calling back Eurydice to the shades below; and which the Manes, however placable, could not pardon, because it was a direct violation of the treaty with Proserpine.

We have pursued this enquiry in different volumes at some length, and found it involved in so many difficulties, that we were almost tempted to pass over the whole subject, but that this difficulty seems to support our opinion of there being really in this book some allusion at least to the Eleusinian mysteries. If we
look

look at Virgil we shall find the 'Manes' very differently described. In the *Georgics* only, 'Manes profundi,'—'Adiit Manes;' 'Si scirent ignoscere' and 'movefet fletu,' seem to show that they were, if commonly, not always implacable. Again, in different part of the *Æneid* they are deities, which are, at least sometimes, propitious—Manes este mihi boni, *Æn.* xii. v. 646. In the fourth book of the *Æneid*, v. 34, they are confounded with the Ghosts; the same in v. 427, and in *Æn.* v. 99, as well as in the passage before us, according to the most common interpretations. In *Æn.* iv. 490, vi. 897, and viii. 246, they change their forms, and are spirits of a more active form, and with less important offices. In short, even in Virgil there seems to have been no distinct office assigned to the Manes, and their nature is no where explained. In other authors there is scarcely less confusion. It is needless to extend these remarks into a discussion: we can find but one point in which the different opinions seem to center, and we shall shortly explain it. In the earliest and best authors, the Manes were supposed to be not wholly the ghosts, but the *Εἰδῶλα*, the soul inclosed in a more airy, slitting, body than the grosser corporeal one, and these images on different occasions were supposed to be allowed to return to earth, occasionally for good purposes, but more commonly for malevolent ones, as the vulgar always consider misfortunes rather than blessings to proceed from these preternatural interpositions: from the prevalence of this common opinion, they were afterwards adored as divinities, or, as Lucan styles them, 'Semidei.' Even in the days of Numa, the rites for appeasing them were instituted, as we are informed by Livy, lib. i. cap. 20. From the rites being repeated nine times, they seem by some authors to have been converted into nine deities.

We cannot, therefore, even from Virgil's philosophy, acquiesce in our author's interpretation of these lines; and Heyne, in his late excellent edition, has shown that on none of the ideas attributed to the word Manes, except as the spirits of departed persons; can this line be interpreted. 'Quoad suos manes quisque patimur.' As spirits we all suffer: this is his interpretation, and the most probable one; but the construction is, we think, designedly complex. It occurs again in Ausonius, perhaps from imitation—'Patiturque suos mens faucia Manes.' We think, with Heyne, that the 743 and 744th lines should follow the 747th. The narrative is now improperly broken.

Our author next explains the *animæ*, *umbræ*, and *simulacra*, nearly as these words have been elucidated by other authors, and in the manner we have hinted above. It is highly probable that every person was subjected to some lustration,

though the degree was different according to the guilt; but it is not clear that every one returned to life, or how often the transmigration was necessary or allowed. We think our author's opinion in the following note very judicious, and highly probable.

‘ I suppose the words *et pauci læta arva tenemus*, to be a parenthesis; which, in my opinion, clears the text of all obscurity. By the change of the person, in the four last lines of the speech,—*Hæc omnes,—volvere,—incipiant,—reviviscant*, it appears, that Anchises does not include himself among those who were to return to the world; which ascertains sufficiently the import of *tenemus*. The learned Rueus construes the passage in a way somewhat different; but his general account of the poet's doctrine differs not essentially from mine.’

We may add also his remarks on the 748th line; ‘*Ubi mille rotam volvere per annos.*’

‘ More literally, “ When they have rolled the wheel, or circle, for a thousand years; that is, when the revolution of a thousand years is completed. For this interpretation we are indebted to Servius, who tells us further, that this singular phrase was taken from Ennius. Anciently, perhaps, *rota* might mean a *circle*, (as well as a *wheel*,) and poetically a *year*; so that, in Ennius's time, *volvere rotam* might be a figurative phrase of the same import with *annum peragere*, to *pass a year*. The original meaning of *annus* is a *circle*, whence the diminutive *annulus*, a *ring*. The same reference to the circular nature of the year, may be seen in the Greek *ἐναυτός*, which Virgil certainly had in his mind when he wrote, “ *Atque in se sua per vestigia volvitur annus.*” When this is attended to, our author's use of the phrase in question will appear not so harsh as it might otherwise be thought to be, and not at all so figurative in this very solemn part of the poem.’

Dr. Beattie vindicates Virgil from the supposition of his insinuating that the whole was a fiction, by sending his hero through the ivory gate, on the foundation which the author of the Critical Observations employed.

Art. III. An Essay on Rythmical Measures. By Walter Young, M. A. F. R. S. Edin. and Minister of the Gospel at Erskine. — Poetical and musical rythm have been treated of by many authors, who have written expressly on these subjects; they also make a necessary part of general treatises on poetry and music; but, in none of these works do we remember to have seen Mr. Young's ideas of the greater musical rythm anticipated, and yet this is one of the modern improvements in music which is of most consequence. The old composers had little notion of the lesser rythm, and none of the greater, a term that may require, even to musical readers, an explanation.

tion. The greater rythm then is, when the strain of an air proceeds by passages included in 2, 4, or 8 bars: in this case, it is said to be regular. In movements of length this regularity is necessarily broken and varied. Nothing so much distinguishes a musician, who composes with learning and facility, from another defective in one or both these qualities; as a perfect command of regular rythm, and a knowledge of where and how it ought to be broken. Mr. Young quotes the practice of many eminent artists in support of the principles he would establish, which are highly worthy the attention of those who would wish to trace one of the sources of pleasure derived from this pleasing art.

Art. IV. On certain Analogies observed by the Greeks in the Use of their Letters; and particularly of the Letter Σ igma. By Andrew Dalzel, M. A. F. R. S. Edin. and Professor of Greek in the University of Edinburgh.—Notwithstanding our author's very ingenious apology, we think his observations a little too minute. Sounds are natural to all animals, and their being more or less articulate depends on the structure of the organs. But the meaning affixed to sounds, and the form of letters expressing them to the eye, are in a great measure arbitrary, and the effects of art; which is more conspicuous in proportion as the sounds are clear, distinct, and short. Lord Monboddo has shown, from an examination of various languages, that the rudest are the most complex; and that, in languages which have few words, these are commonly long. If, for instance, a savage has a word to distinguish one, he adds a syllable or more to it to express two. It remains to be enquired whether this added syllable is not, in process of time, the whole representative of the second idea. The only method of connecting the forms of letters with the sounds is that of bishop Wilkins, in his attempt to establish natural characters, and the want of success in his scheme, which is truly ingenious, and strictly philosophical, will probably deter other projectors.

Our author proceeds, in the first part, for what we have alluded to is introductory only, to examine the different letters, and to show how Σ igma is a *peculiar* letter, for by this word we translate *suæ potestatis*. He first notices Dr. Clarke's opinion, that Σ is arbitrary or peculiar, because all the other letters are either single or double, while Σ may be either, (Not. ad Iliad. v. 1.) This is, however, given only as an opinion or conjecture; and our author has shown very clearly that it was adopted too hastily. Sigma, in Mr. Dalzel's opinion, is peculiar among other reasons, 1. Because it alone of all the consonants assists the mutes in making the double letters, as Ψ , ξ , and ζ , are composed of π , β , ϕ , and σ ; κ , γ , χ , and σ ; τ , δ ,

6, and σ respectively. 2. Because it is the only consonant whose power is employed in forming the dative plural of the imparasyllabic declension. 3. As it is of peculiar service in the elegant and useful formation of the Greek verb. 4. As it is never characteristic of the liquid verb. 5. Its independent nature is shown by the different state in which the letter ν is found when it precedes this letter, compared to its power when it precedes the other letters. And, 6. Because it is the only hissing letter in the alphabet. These are undoubtedly peculiarities of ν , but the distinction of grammarians means no more, we believe, than that this letter is not included in a particular class: it is neither mute nor liquid.

The second part is on the manner in which the improvers of the Greek language have availed themselves of this singular letter; and, as we find our insinuation that greater hissing may be observed in other tongues, and even in Greek than in English, has excited some murmurs of disapprobation, we shall beg leave to copy from our author the following hissing lines of Euripides (*Medea*, v. 477.)

Ἐσῶσα σ', ὡς ἴσασιν Ἕλλήνων ὄσοι
Ταυτὸν συνεισέσχον Ἀργεῶν σκάφος.

Cicero too, our author observes, has begun his *Topica* from a similar inadvertence, with the following words, *Majores nos res scribere ingressos, C. Trebati et iis libris, quos brevi tempore satis multos edidimus, digniores, &c.* Mr. Dalzel has given the different sentiments of the Ionics and Attics, as well as of different critics; but, in general, this poor unfortunate letter is allowed only to convey hisses and whispers, with the most expressive whistling.

Art. V. Account of the German Theatre. By Henry Mackenzie, Esq. F.R.S. Edin.—This is a very pleasing and interesting enquiry into a subject not generally understood in this country; but, independent of its being difficult to give a proper account of it in an abridged form, added to the consideration that Mr. Mackenzie seems to have drawn his ideas from a translation, and that in the *Speculator* we have examined the subject nearer to the fountain, our article will necessarily be short. The author enquires into the cause of the later dawn of dramatic poetry in Germany, its peculiar appearance, and the manners most commonly described in their plays, and his reasons are drawn from the broken state of its government, divided into principalities, from that of the manners, and the peculiar energy of the German mind, calculated for deep reflection, and moved only by the most forcible impressions. The dawn of the German drama, or rather its first splendor,

is dated between 1740 and 1750. In the other parts of the paper, Mr. Mackenzie describes the works of different German dramatists, and intersperses his descriptions with short accounts of their plays. The more terrible graces, which we admired some years since in 'sacred dramas' of our own country, we suspect, from the memoir before us, were taken from the 'Death of Adam' of Klopstock. A particular account is given of the 'Robbers,' a tragedy by Lessing, a play full of horror, but sublime, terrible, and pathetic in a high degree. To understand the following extract, it is necessary only to observe that Moor is a prodigal son, whose return to virtue is prevented by the villany of his brother; who intercepted his penitentiary letter. On this he became captain of a band of robbers; and his father, on being informed of his dissolute conduct faints, and is carried lifeless from the stage. The passage is taken from the fourth act. It is night, and the remains of the band are assembled on a desert heath, not far distant from the ruins of an ancient tower, near which the winds whistle, and the owl shrieks. They had watched three days and three nights of danger and alarm, and all were at rest except Moor.

"A long long night!—on which no morning will ever dawn! Think ye that Moor will tremble? Shades of the victims of this assassinating sword! I see your bleeding wounds, I look on your livid lips, and hear the last agonizing groans they breathe—but I tremble not.—These are but links of that eternal chain, which he who sits in yonder heaven holds in his hand. He stamped these horrors on my destiny. Even amidst the innocent, the happy days of my un sullied infancy, his eye saw them, and sealed them on my fate! (*he draws a pistol.*) The barrier betwixt eternity and time, this little instrument can burst—and then—Thou dread unknown! whither wilt thou lead? where wilt thou place me? If thou leav'st me this conscious self, 'tis that must create my heaven or my hell. Amidst the waste of a world which thine anger hast destroyed, I can people the silent void with thought. Or wilt thou, in new and untried states, lead me through various misery to nothing? Thou mayest annihilate my being; but while this soul is left, will not its freedom and its force remain? 'Tis equal where—(*putting up his pistol*) I will not now shrink from the sufferings of the present—the destiny of Moor shall be fulfilled."

'He is silent—he hears the tread of approaching feet, and presently a figure glides before him, and knocks at the grated wicket of the tower. The figure speaks, "Rise, man of sorrow, inhabitant of the tower, thy repast is here." A feeble voice answers from the dungeon within. "Herman, is it thou? Bring'st thou, like the prophet's raven, his food to a lingering wretch, that lives by
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the crumbs which thy pity affords him?" Moor, who had shrunk back in amazement, now advances, and desires the man to stop. That man is Herman. He draws his sword; but is almost instantly disarmed. "What art thou, says the astonished Herman, whose touch withers like that of death? Art thou the demon of this horrid place? the spirit of this murderous tower?" "I am, says Moor; the exterminating angel is my name; and yet I have flesh and bones like thee. But what wretch is in that tower? I will burst his chains." He draws from his pocket the pass-keys which his profession employs; he opens the tower; the skeleton figure of a famished wretch creeps from the dungeon — "Horrible phantom!" says the astonished Moor, in a low and stifled voice, "my father!"

The domestic tragedies of the Germans are interesting and tender; but their comedies, sentimental, and usually insipid.

Art. VI. *Theory of the Moods of Verbs.* By James Gregory, M. D. F. R. S. Edin. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, and Professor of the Theory of Physic in the University of Edinburgh. — This very ingenious philological disquisition is not very capable of abridgment. Dr. Gregory concludes, that the energies or modifications of thought, expressed by the moods of verbs, are truly *accidents* and chiefly *actions*; they denote also, in general, social operations of the mind, as they relate to some other intelligent being, whose existence is consequently supposed; and they are, in his opinion, concise modes of expressing the most frequent combinations of thought. Their number is, he thinks, limited by the convenience or wants of those who employ them, who, for the same purpose, occasionally vary them and employ one mood instead of another. They contribute greatly to the beauty and perfection of language by the brevity, animation, and force which they necessarily give, and express much better than any succession of words can do, the intimate connection and relation of various thoughts, which are not successive but simultaneous, and appear disjointed, unnaturally separated, when expressed in any other manner. These conclusions our author supports at some length, by various ingenious observations, and some remarks equally beautiful and unexpected.

Art. VII. *An Essay on the Character of Hamlet, in Shakspeare's Tragedy of Hamlet.* By the Reverend Mr. Thomas Robertson, F. R. S. Edin. and Minister of Dalmeny. — The character of Hamlet, so often explained, and so often condemned, engages the attention of our author, who endeavours to reconcile its various inconsistencies. He supposes that Shakspeare left a clue for this purpose in the eulogy of Horatio, and peculiarly expatiates on his 'noble heart' and 'gentle spirit,'

insinuated by the appellation of 'sweet prince.' The description of Hamlet, as he was, previous to the appearance of his father's ghost, formed in our author's opinion the groundwork of the superstructure. Shakspeare, without any particular plan, followed Hamlet in the events, enquiring, as he went on, how such a character would act in such given circumstances. The great outlines we have mentioned guided him in his progressive sketch; and while Hamlet acts with zeal and filial piety, his gentleness rising nearly to weakness, his mildness becoming almost cowardice, lead him to that indecisive conduct, which has been attributed to worse motives. His rudeness to Ophelia was a necessary part of his system, and his refusing to kill the king at his prayers, it is said was owing to his irresolution, which caught at an unjustifiable excuse, rather than rush hastily on so violent an attempt. When the king was killed it is supposed that he was roused by suspecting that his mother's death was owing to the deliberate villany of his uncle. Many other remarks of a similar kind are added, and, on the whole, it is a pleasing and ingenious essay; rather amusing than convincing, but which displays much acuteness, and a sound judgment. With this memoir the volume concludes.

The Medallic History of England to the Revolution. With Forty Plates. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Edwards and Sons. 1790.

THE medals of ancient Greece and Rome were sometimes the current coins of those countries, and sometimes struck to commemorate important events, the brilliant actions of such successful commanders, or other circumstances particularly interesting to the different cities and states: in the lower empire they were the vehicles of a despicable adulation; and the arts, in their most perfect state, were debased by accumulating honours, often divine, on the most depraved of men. In our times they have become distinctions of honour appropriated to monarchs, to successful commanders, or those who have excelled in literary pursuits. It has, however, sometimes happened, that the medallic distinctions of monarchs have been disgraced by flattery too abject; and those of literati have been so long delayed, that we have possessed only uncertain resemblances from suspicious sources. But even in the approaches to a likeness a little enthusiasm will revive, and we shall compare with eagerness the promises derived from a contemplation of the features, with the actions or the writings of the man.

The medals of England have occasionally adorned its histories or its topographies; they have been collected also by authors, who have published systems of this kind, particularly by Snelling.

Snelling. We have, however, no hesitation in saying, that this history is much more complete in its collection, and more beautiful in its execution: It is accompanied by explanations executed with great splendor; and some short account of those persons who may have moved in a less exalted sphere, or who are less generally known; are added. We shall explain the subjects of the plates; and the remarks which accompany them in their order.

The cotemporary English medals begin only at the time of Henry VIII: The two first plates, therefore, from the Conqueror to that period are engraved from Dassier, who executed them about the year 1740. The faces are chiefly taken from monuments of stone, or illuminated MSS. but they are in general distinct and appropriated. The reverses are very elegant; executed with great skill and taste. But Dassier's medals are sufficiently known:

The counter of Edward III. struck in France is a singularly curious medal. The leopard and the fleur de lys are placed alternately in the reverse: A modern medal of William of Wickham, struck as a prize at Winchester school, a medal of Wickliff from Dassier, a counter struck in France with the arms of John Strangeways, esq. 'Jehan Stangawe Escuyer,' treasurer of Normandy; reverse, the arms of France and England, follow. The account of the fourth medal we shall transcribe from the author.

“ The first cotemporary English medal. It is of sir John Kendal, turcopolier, or general of the cavalry, of the order of Rhodes, now of Malta. This office being annexed to that of grand prior of England, was generally held by Englishmen; and there are fine medals of sir Richard Shelly, the last English grand prior, the Reformation annihilating that dignity. Obverse head, JO. KENDAL. RHODI TURCOPELLERIVS, “ John Kendal, Turcopolier of Rhodes. Reverse the arms of Kendal,” TEMPORE OBSIDIONIS TURCORVM MCCCCLXXX. “ In the time of the siege by the Turks, 1480.”

On the 23d day of May, 1480, Pierre d'Aubuffon being grand master, the Pacha Misach Palæologus, a Christian regenado, laid siege to Rhodes, with a fleet of 160 vessels, and a land army of 100,000 men. This siege, one of the most memorable, was pushed and sustained with all the valour and art imaginable. The fortifications were quite dismantled by the Turkish artillery; and the knights defended themselves on the ruins of the ramparts, many being slain, and the grand master receiving five wounds. In spite of all these advantages the Turks were put to flight, and forced to reëmbark on the 19th of August, leaving 9,000 dead, and carrying off 15,000 wounded. Such was the issue of this fa-

mous siege, which lasted 89 days. If I mistake not, there is a particular narrative of this siege, written and published soon after, in which it is likely that the actions of Kendal may occur.

“ This medal, which is evidently done in Italy at the time, as the reader may perceive by comparing its fabric with the early Italian medals in the *Musæum Mazzuchellianum*, is cast, not struck. It was found in Knaresborough Forest, in the beginning of this century, and passed into the museum of Mr. Thoresby, who published it in his *Ducatus Leodiensis*. It is now in the Devonshire collection.”

In this plate are also a small medal of Henry VIII. without a reverse, one of Patrick Hamilton the Scotch reformer, from Daffier, and three modern medals of Edward VI. struck for badges at Christ's Hospital.

The next plate contains cotemporary medals of Henry VIII. and Edward VI. executed with more taste and neatness than we should have expected in that æra.

The fifth plate contains the medals of Philip and Mary, in which we distinguish the harsh, unbending, unrelenting features of these sanguinary reformers. Mary appears the least amiable, probably because we might have wished to find her most so. Her features are in all the medals nearly the same, and equally expressive of sullen bigotry and unfeminine inhumanity. One is Daffier's, and another a Flemish jetton of Philip and Mary. A medal of the earl of Pembroke is added.

In the sixth plate are different medals of Philip, with Daffier's medals of Ridley, Latimer, and Cranmer, and a papal medal containing on the obverse the head of Julius III. whose appearance is singularly arch and penetrating; on the reverse is the pope raising Philip, who had knelt to him. It was struck on the reconciliation of England with the Holy See.

The medals of Elizabeth follow, in three plates, executed with great elegance, in which she appears acute and observing; though the features are generally harsh, yet they are sometimes so much softened that she is not an unpleasing figure. The other medals of Elizabeth, to which the medals of Leicester are added, seem to be satirical, except those of Holland and England, struck on the defeat of the Spanish armada. The medals of plate ix. chiefly relate to the connexion of Elizabeth with France and Holland, or both.

In the tenth plate are the representations of illustrious or private persons who flourished in the reign of Elizabeth. Richard Martin and Dorcas Eglestone his wife are unknown, except in this medal. Maria Newce, the wife of John Dimoch, is scarcely known. John Knox is engraved from Daffier. Sir Christopher Hatton and the marquis of Northampton were
furnished

furnished from Dr. Hunter's collection. The marchioness of Northampton, represented in another medal, is his second wife, Elizabeth, daughter of lord Cobham. Sir Richard Schelley, whom we observe on another of the medals, was the last grand prior of the order of St. John of Jerusalem in England.

The twelfth plate contains some jettons, one of a person unknown, another of sir Thomas Sackville, the third of John Hele, serjeant at law, the fourth of sir Edward Coke, the fifth of Thomas Cecil, the sixth of sir Robert Cecil, the seventh unknown, the eighth struck by the states-general when James removed his troops from the guaranteed towns. Three medals of James I. follow, and the following plate contains numerous medals of James, two of his son Henry, and one of Anne of Denmark, his queen, a princess of considerable beauty and talents. These medals seem to be well executed, but the reign of a pedant can furnish no remarkable transactions.

The thirteenth plate contains medals of Anne of Denmark, different medals of the Elector Palatine, king of Bohemia, and of James's daughter Elizabeth, his wife; a curious medal of Nicholas Wadham and his wife, in the dresses of that æra. A fine medal of sir Thomas Bodley by Warin, Desfrier's animated figure of Shakspeare, and two medals of lord Bacon. Of one of these we shall transcribe our author's very curious account.

“ This medal of lord chancellor Bacon, with a miner on the reverse, and motto, *DEVS EST QUI CLAUSA RECLVSIT*, was invented by Thomas Bushell, esq. who wrote many tracts relating to the Welch mines, of which he had the farm in the last years of Charles I. but with so little success, that he became a prisoner for debt in the Fleet about the year 1650. At this time he formed a project, which, by his reckoning, would yield 1000*l.* a week; and to encourage subscriptions, procured friends to open an assurance office at the Royal Exchange, and publish the above medal in gold, valued at 5*l.* All his proposals are prefaced with the authority of lord chancellor Bacon, whom he calls his honoured master, and of whose Atlantis he gives an abridgment, in a style very extravagant and enthusiastic.

“ There is a book called “ *An Extract*, by Mr. Bushell, of his late Abridgment of the lord chancellor Bacon's Philosophical Theory in Mineral Productions, published for the Satisfaction of his Noble Friends that importunately desired it, London, 1660;” with a good print of Charles II. by Faithorne.

“ Mr. Bushell appears to be a great Rosicrucian, but gives many curious historical documents concerning the silver lead-mines in Cardiganhire. At page 16. of the Appendix, is the following curious piece relating to this medal, which he then intended to strike, viz.

“ The

“ The Impression of Mr. Bushell's Golden Medal.

Head. FRA. BACON. VICECO. SCT. ALBAN. ANGLIÆ CANCELL.

Reverse. A miner, with a pickaxe on his shoulder, holding up a piece of ore, and looking towards Heaven. Motto,

DEVS EST QUI CLAUSA RECLVDIT THO. BVSHELL.

“ The lord St. Alban's Atlantis is a magazine of compendious (but sublime) documents to enrich a commonwealth with universal notions, as far above a vulgar capacity as the empyreal heavens are above the earth; for which cause himself stiled it his “ Solomon's House, or six daies work.” But the way to advance a proportionable revenue (proposed by his philosophical theory) to accomplish the vast design of such a magnificent structure without a prince's purse, will seem as abstruse to some acute apprehensions as the immortal descent of the soul to animate the embryo in the womb; yet if any responsible persons are incredulous of Mr. Bushell's proceeding to perfect the said lord's philosophical theory in mineral discoveries, according to his undertaking, let them, or any other that have heretofore given him credit on the late king's score, or his own, repair to the Assurance Office at the Royal Exchange, where they shall have tendered (by friends of his) medals of gold by way of mart, to raise 1000l. per week, according to the tenor of a bill express'd at large in his Abridgment of the Lord Chancellor Bacon's Mineral Productions, so soon as it is settled in parliament for their encouragement, and himself hath liberty to attend providence in the success.—It appears he was then prisoner in the Fleet.”

The jubilee medal of Shakspeare, and another medal of lord Bacon, fill the first rank of the fourteenth plate, and different medals of the unfortunate Charles and his queen follow. The likenesses of Charles are more animated than in those paintings executed in the latter years of his life; and if there is a want of energy and judgment in his appearance, there is no deficiency either of candour or humanity. Henrietta appears more determined, but the expression is not pleasing. A medal of prince Rupert, and two struck on the birth of Charles II. are added. The medals of Charles fill the two next plates, and in two or three Henrietta is joined with him. Counters on the birth of Charles II. and James are in this class, and one or two on the first of these receiving the order of the Garter. The medallie history of Charles concludes with the medals struck on his death. He is represented as triumphing in heaven, and his antagonists as equally ‘blasphemers of God, destroyers of religion and law.’

Four plates, containing the illustrious persons of this æra follow. Among these may be particularly distinguished bishop
Juxon,

Juxon, archbishop Laud, colonel Strangways, Thomas Carew (probably the poet), the earl of Portland, with an alchemical reverse, or rather an allusion to the jovial ray of Behmen, sir Theodore Mayerne the physician, old Thomas Parr, Robert Devereux earl of Essex, lord and sir Thomas Fairfax, with others of less note and importance.

The twenty-second plate contains the medals of Oliver; but in neither are the features so striking and characteristic as in the best of Oliver's half-crowns. Some of these medals are satirical, particularly that in which Oliver is joined with Massaniello, and one in which the French and Spanish ambassadors are represented as contending for the honour of kissing the posteriors of Britannia. Among the medals struck in remembrance of the gallant actions of that æra, are one of Oliver's after the victory at Dunbar; one given to admiral Blake in commemoration of his victory over Van Tromp; and some others of less importance. Henry Ireton, general Lambert, sir William Waller, lord Kimbolton, lord Inchiquin, sir James Harrington, Henry Scobel, baron de Reede, speaker Lenthall, John Lilborne, earl of Loudon, general Pointz, secretary Thurloe, lady Lane, Mrs. Cleypole the favourite daughter of Oliver, general Monk, earl of Lauderdale, earl of Clarendon, earl of Southampton, marquis of Montrose, a very rare medal, and sir Edward Nicholas, are the principal persons noticed in this Medallie History, and their different medals are engraved with the usual elegance. A few names of less celebrity we have omitted.

In the first plate which represents the medals of Charles II. is Daffier's medal of Charles I. and the Dutch medal representing on the different sides Charles I. and II. The very scarce coronation medal of Charles II. struck when he was crowned at Scoon is subjoined. In the other plates are various medals struck on different occasions in that eventful reign, with different medals of Charles's queen, who is represented as sufficiently agreeable to make Charles's irregularities, even in that view, indefensible. On one of the medals is the head of the duchess of Portsmouth, and this is most probably that described by Vertue, who says that on the reverse was Cupid seated on a woolfack. He seems not to have examined it carefully, for it is the earth which supports him.

In some of these plates, which are in general admirably executed, the duke of York is joined with Charles, but one whole plate is filled with the different medals of the two brothers. A medal of Charles with various reverses, on the foundation of the mathematical school at Christ's Hospital, is added.

In the thirty-third plate, the remaining medals of Charles are

are joined with those of illustrious persons. These medals of Charles were chiefly struck on his death, or are the modern ones of Daffier and Bower. Of the latter we may particularly mention that of the duke of Ormond, of which we shall transcribe the description, &c.

“ Of James duke of Ormond. Reverse a ducal coronet, transfixed by a sword and an olive branch; PRÆSIDIVM ET DVLCÆ DECVS 1682, “ Our defence and sweet ornament.” He was an excellent soldier, an accomplished courtier, an able statesman, and a humane, benevolent, good man. He suffered much in the cause of Charles I. and his character was revered even by his enemies. Cromwell offered to restore him his immense estate, but he was of too nice honour to accept the offer from one who he thought had no right to make it. He was a great orator, and never failed to convince, as he spoke only on the side of truth and equity. His great exploits in Ireland in the reign of Charles I. and his wise government in that kingdom in the reign of Charles II. are well known. He died the 21st of July, 1688, aged 78. The motto and type of the reverse allude to his loyalty.”

The others are the duke of Albemarle, earl of Shaftesbury, earl of Berkeley, the famous Anne countess of Dorset, Pembroke, and Montgomery; John Selden joined in this plate with Daffier's medal of Cromwell, each improperly placed, Daffier's and Tanner's medals of Milton.

The medals relating to the pretended murder of sir Edmund-bury Godfrey fill one entire plate, but the fifth seems to show that there were at least some who doubted of its being the contrivance of the papists at that time. Of this medal we shall transcribe our author's account.

“ Two heads joined; O WHY SO FICKLE. Reverse seven faces; BIRDS OF A FEATHER FLOCK TOGETHER.—I have met with no medal more difficult to decypher than the present. On one side seems to be the head of Dr. Oates with two faces, one as an Anabaptist preacher, the other as a Jesuit, to which the motto refers. This man was the most infamous of mankind. His father was an Anabaptist preacher, chaplain to colonel Pride. The son, having a living given him by the duke of Norfolk, took orders in the church. He had been indicted for perjury, but by some means escaped. He was afterwards chaplain on board the fleet, from whence he was discharged for unnatural practices. He then turned Catholic, and was admitted at the Jesuit's College at St. Omer's. After this affair he turned Anabaptist. His whole evidence was full of contradictions and absurdities. The reverse seems to have been designed by one who had sagacity enough not to believe a word of the plot, and who thought the king was at the bottom of it to

serve some particular purpose, as it is evident the face in the middle is that of Charles the Second; the others I apprehend to be lord Danby, lord Shaftesbury, Titus Oates, William Bedloe, Dr. Tonge, and Kirby the chemist. Oates was caressed, lodged at Whitehall, and encouraged by a pension of 1200l. a year. In 1685 he was convicted of perjury on two indictments, and on the clearest evidence: his sentence was whipping, pillory, and perpetual imprisonment, and fined a thousand marks. On the accession of William he had 400l. a year settled on him."

There is a very scarce medal of sir Edmund, who is represented full faced, of a gloomy and melancholy appearance; but whether his accidental, perhaps his voluntary death, was taken advantage of, or whether he was really murdered, it is impossible to decide at this time. The frequent appearance of groundless plots, and suspicions always kept alive by some new story against the papists, must prevent us from being too credulous. Even of the reality of the gunpowder-plot, if the circumstances were again examined, there would arise many doubts.

The other medals are those of sir William Waller, general Monk, the duke of Lauderdale, and cardinal Howard. Two medals of James, one seemingly on the birth of the prince of Wales, and one that we should suspect of a doubtful, perhaps of a satirical tendency, if the motto did not again occur on one of James' own medals, are added in the same plate.

The thirty-seventh and thirty-eighth plates are those of James and his queen, to which in the latter are subjoined those struck on the unfortunate event of the duke of Monmouth's attempt, and some medals of the duke.

The medals of the prince of Wales follow, with a few satirical ones, plainly insinuating that the young prince was supposititious: some of these satirical medals are well executed, and the devices are very ingenious. The last plate chiefly relates to the seven bishops who were sent to the Tower, and to the progress of popery. All these are evidently satirical.

As we have followed our author pretty closely, and pointed out the merits of his work, we shall only add, that we think it a very interesting one: we have seen nothing of this kind so complete, or in every respect so well executed. A few errors of the engraver and of the printer contribute in a slight degree to disgrace it, though as they are not of importance, they do not greatly lessen the value of this *Medallic History*.

Traits Ethical, Theological, and Political. By Thomas Cooper, Esq. Vol. I. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Johnson. 1790.

IF science, in its utmost extent, be supposed to resemble a chain, that part of it which we see and understand, may be compared to a very few links, nearer perhaps to the beginning

ning than to the end, but distant far from both. Of these links we sometimes perceive the different parts with clearness, and can distinguish the connections; of others we have but an imperfect glance, and when we see some at a distance, we conclude that they are connected with those before us, by their situation and direction, but the means by which this is effected, escape our sight and our comprehension. When we approach the first parts of this chain, we are soon lost in a mist; the links are confused, we see them where we think they cannot be, and we cease to discover them in that direction in which we are confident they proceed. If we trace it at last to one great point, we are equally ignorant, whether it hangs suspended by fixed immutable laws, or whether its existence, continuance, and connection are owing to the interference of a superior being. To pursue the metaphor farther: of the links themselves we know little; our examination soon reaches its utmost limits, and when we have determined their composition, their mode of union in one concrete escapes us: we are glad to substitute words for ideas, and to escape with the semblance of wisdom concealing utter ignorance. It fortunately (we ought to say providentially) happens, that those links before us are the most useful, and that their obvious properties and connections it imports us most to be acquainted with; and these are what we see with the greatest clearness, while the more distant ones have no influence on our conduct, and scarcely contribute to make us happier or better. The stupendous contrivance of the whole should lead us to the most sublime conceptions of the first cause, and the most grateful remembrance, that what is most useful is best known.

This little allegorical allusion took its rise from the reflections of our respectable author, introductory to his first *Essay on Moral Obligation*; and those who, like him, perceive most clearly the vast disproportion between what we know and what we are ignorant of, will coincide in his opinion of the decision of Socrates, who declared that he knew nothing. The foundation of moral obligation is undoubtedly obscure. As we feel it, there is little doubt of its arising from instruction, and the association of the general consequence of an act with the idea of the act itself. We have little doubt of the original being one of those abstract ideas formed from the experience and observation of successive ages respecting the tendencies of different actions to promote happiness or misery. There is certainly no foundation for that supreme monitor, a judge which Hutcheson has raised to the bench of justice under the name of a moral sense; for there is no evidence from the history of the human mind, of its possessing any ideas but what may be originally traced to sensible objects. Our author with great

propriety enumerates the different systems on this subject, and adds his observations or his objections to each. Mr. Hume's system of moral obligation being founded on its being subservient to general utility, Mr. Cooper seems to think a very judicious one; but, on the whole, prefers the later system, revived from some of the older authors, that moral obligation arises from its being conducive to your own greatest good on the whole. If what we have just now remarked be accurate, that, at present our moral conduct is the result of instruction and the association of ideas, it will refer the establishment of the system, as we have said, to the experience of successive ages, and in that case it is more likely that the attention should have been directed to general than to particular utility. But at all events, the difference between general and personal utility, when examined in its full extent, is so inconsiderable, that we need not waste many words on the subject: too many by far have been already wasted, for if divested of its intricate form, it really lies within a narrow compass.

The next subject of Mr. Cooper's enquiry is, whether the Deity be a free Agent. Though we have occasionally admitted the doctrine of philosophical necessity, yet we are not ready to carry it so far as to deny the free agency of the Deity. The great argument, that he foreknows what will happen, and, therefore, that it is determined what must happen, does not in this point apply, because as nothing is beyond his power, and every mode of combination within the reach of his fiat, the greatest possible felicity may be the result of what to our comprehensions would appear the sum of misery; and the end of course be obtained by an infinite variety of means. Besides, in another view, if God foreknows what is to happen, it is because he has willed it, and what power is there to say that he might not have willed something different; so that while the free agency of God has no impediment in the means, it is not probable that it has any impediment in the end. It is an uncommon argument to say, that from his benevolence he must produce the greatest sum of happiness our state can admit; for making the attributes of the Deity universal, is by the same means limiting their power: take away, for instance, his benevolence, and by this argument he is a free agent. This reasoning, if not conclusive, limits, we think, these attributes which its authors would wish to increase; yet on this foundation our author rests.

The opinion I mean to maintain, is, 1. That the Supreme Being is the cause of every thing which depends upon him, from some *motive or inducement*, which occasioned him to become the cause of it: 2, That this motive or inducement operated *necessarily*,
in

in the strict sense of the word, exclusive of the possibility of liberty, or free agency : and 3. That this motive was the *greatest sum of happiness* which would arise upon the whole from the existence of the effect, than from its none existence.'

But even in this mode of arguing, which is the strongest that we have seen, Mr. Cooper does not elude the free agency respecting means, nor indeed, in our opinion, respecting the end, for it is not strictly logical to say that we are not free agents, because we accomplish an end which we have previously willed : yet this argument seems to imply no more.

In the other parts of this essay Mr. Cooper replies with great judgment and acuteness to the observations of Dr. Clark and archbishop King. The following observation is worth transcribing for various reasons.

'To those who are so afraid of the concession, that the Deity is inevitably determined in all his actions, it might be worth while to consider, that God exists necessarily, he cannot avoid it : he cannot alter his attributes or properties, whatever they be ; these therefore are necessary : and if his actions proceed from his attributes, his actions also are necessary. In fact, we know of nothing in the universe that is not so, and with respect to the mental phenomena of man, the point seems to me no longer disputable.'

The arguments drawn from God's necessary existence, and the necessary existence of his attributes, seem to us fallacious, for if they are pursued they will raise necessity into a first cause, and in moral as well as mathematical reasoning, the *reductio ad absurdum* leads to the suspicion of some error either in the premises or the argument. On the whole, however, this essay displays much acuteness and strength of mind. It is fortoment pense, for which we have no adequate phrase in English.

On the subject of Materialism, to which Mr. Cooper's attention is next directed, we have often had occasion to make some observations. At these times we have not taken a decided part, for the subject we consider as so complex, its bearings so numerous, and its influence so extensive, that we have wished to hesitate a little longer. We own that we think it unsuitable for popular discussion, though our author, like some of the zealous reformers of the present age, thinks no discussion should be avoided, for if well founded, it will contribute to the spread of truth, may illuminate various collateral subjects, and, at any rate, emancipate the human mind from the shackles of authority ; if false, it deserves to be exposed. This point Mr. Cooper has enforced with his usual energy and precision. 'Indeed, if I were asked, says he, what opinion from the Creation

to the present day, has done most harm, I should answer without hesitation, "the opinion of the inexpediency of publishing sentiments of a supposed bad tendency." We would, however, ask our author, whether it might not be dangerous to add one argument to the support of vice, and to take away one incentive to virtue? whether it is expedient to alarm the weak or terrify the timid mind by doubts on subjects which they think of importance, and which militate, in their opinion, against their eternal happiness? We can safely anticipate his answer. Now we think the discussion of many of the opinions which the advocates of free enquiry contend for, may have these effects; not from their direct consequences, but from a wilful or accidental misinterpretation, or an inability to comprehend their force and real tendencies. He will probably reply, that we must not reject a good, for fear others should abuse it: allowed, but we should earnestly guard against such modes of publication as will render it most liable to abuse, and we could wish that every discussion of this kind could be communicated only in the learned languages; for though judgment and learning are not always concomitants, yet the learned man is more frequently accustomed to examine and reflect. We have no hesitation in saying that the arguments of the materialists are cogent, and that the force of evidence is on that side, because we can immediately add, that the arguments in favour of this opinion have no connection with a doctrine of future rewards and punishments; each stands on such different grounds that the man who could become a reprobate because he is not actuated by a principle which he has been accustomed to consider as alone immortal, would be scarcely less irrational than he, who because the bite of a viper cannot injure him, will wantonly risk jumping into the sea. We have chosen this instance for our present purpose, but we did not only allude to the doctrine of materialism, when we stated those modes in which popular discussions might be dangerous. On the subject of the next essay we shall endeavour to suggest some other antidotes to those who might misunderstand or misinterpret this opinion.

Mr. Cooper examines the system of the materialist with great precision, and though he modestly disclaims the pretensions of novelty, he has stated so many parts of the argument in a light so new and so forcible, as to give them the appearance and the effect of novelty. Let us transcribe our author's more direct argument, or rather Mr. Cooper's representation of the argument of Dr. Priestley.

'The argument then, which proves that perception is the result of our organization when cleared of objections, stands thus:

'Certainty'

' Certainty and universality of concomitance between two or more phenomena, is the only direct reason we have for asserting a necessary connection between them.

The property of perception and a sound state of the brain are certainly, and universally concomitant: therefore

' This certain, and universal concomitance is the only direct reason we have for asserting a necessary connection between the property of perception, and a sound state of the brain.

' But this reason is the same that we have for asserting a necessary connection between any other phenomena whatever: therefore

' We have the same reason for asserting a necessary connection between the property of perception, and a sound state of the brain, as for asserting the same thing of any other phenomena whatever.

' In all cases where the necessary connection between two phenomena is such, that the one is denominated a *property*, and the other the *subject* of which the first is a property, the property is universally deemed to result necessarily from the nature or essence of the subject to which it belongs: but as perception must be a property of something, and as it is necessarily connected with a sound state of the brain, perception is a property of the brain, and therefore results necessarily from the nature or essence thereof.'

Perhaps it may increase the force of this argument to add, that in no instance are the senses disordered, without a disorder of the organization, or of the functions of the nerves, proved to be independent of any other principle, by similar changes being produced in the nerves of the rest of the body, and in no instance that has yet been produced, is there any evidence of a separate action of the soul.

We cannot follow our author very particularly in this disquisition, which, we think, is a very able one. Mr. Cooper, however, is sometimes a little careless in his reasoning, a fault not very common, or indeed one that injures his argument in this place on the whole; and he stays sometimes too long in discussing obsolete and forgotten opinions. We may add a word or two on the state of the controversy.

The advocates for the immateriality of the soul seem to have founded their system from necessity. Matter they saw was heavy, inactive, extended, and its properties were totally incompatible with the exertions of the mental principle. Their idea of soul was a negative one, and consequently suited for this or any other purpose. But when matter was more fully known, and its smaller particles were found to be not inactive, to be almost not extended (for indefinite divisibility excludes extension, so far as our perception carries us); when it was discovered also, that what we had considered as the properties of matter were

those of a surrounding medium, and it was almost a doubt, whether the closest cohesion and the strongest apparent impulses were more than approximations; the dispute necessarily changed its form, and the immaterialists were again urged with arguments more powerful than they had before employed. What was not matter could have no relation to matter; could not be related to space, nor have any influence on matter, and it was triumphantly urged with strict accuracy, that we knew no more of matter as such, or rather its component parts, than of spirit. The last arguments the immaterialists have never overcome; for, in the human body, to interpose a thinner less corporeal body removes only at a greater distance, without answering, the objection. On the other side, the materialists have never yet got over the objection how matter, by any combination or organization, can possess the functions of mind. It must be owned, that each urges his antagonist beyond the limited acquisitions of humanity, that each must *necessarily* be beyond our comprehension; yet it cannot escape the attentive reader, that the arguments on one side seem to involve a contradiction, those on the other only display our ignorance. In various parts of this enquiry, our author merits much commendation; but we shall extract only as a specimen of the reasoning one of the arguments; it is a strong one, and urged with considerable dexterity and force.

‘ If the soul be, as the advocates for its existence suppose it is, simple, uncompounded, indiscerptible, it is inconsistent with this their notion of it, to suppose it liable to change. But all those faculties or properties which constitute our idea of the soul, and from which we infer its existence, are liable to change. We can trace the phenomena of perception, recollection, judgment, and volition, from their commencement through their gradual progress towards their acme, and thence through their decline to their total evanescence.

‘ This consideration, so incompatible with the immaterial system, is even a strong proof of the opposite doctrine, which makes the supposed mental properties the result of our corporeal frame. For let it be supposed that these mental phenomena are the mere result of our bodily organs: then, if this be true, it ought to follow, that they will commence when these organs commence, they will improve as these organs improve, they will be in perfection when these latter are, they will be most acute where these organs are most sensible, they will decline as these decline, and they will disappear when these disappear. But all these consequences are undeniable matters of fact: and every considerable variation will be explicable from the difference of the impressions made on the senses of different men, in kind, in number, and in degree.

‘ Nor

‘Nor will the immaterialist be aided against these facts by the supposition that the soul acquires ideas by means of the body; or that it makes its actions apparent by means of the body. For these phenomena either appertain to the body entirely, or to the soul entirely, or partly to one and partly to the other. Not to the body entirely on the immaterial hypothesis, for then the question is given up at once, since these are mental phenomena, the phenomena which induce us to recur to a soul for their explication. Nor to the soul entirely, for that is contradictory to matter of fact, as above stated; and matter of fact must be true whichever hypothesis be true. And yet if the last of the alternatives be taken, it will follow, that the soul is not independent of, or distinct from, the body, since none of its actions, none of the proofs of its existence, none of the mental phenomena, can be exerted but in concert with the body, and by means thereof. And if the soul be not independent of the body, when the latter dies, where is the former?’

It was no inconsiderable argument in favour of the spiritual nature of the soul, that while the body was continually changing, there must be some principle incapable of change, in which man consists, and which must be accountable for the deeds done in the body: in other words, there must be an identity of man if not of person. This argument has appeared so striking, that it contributes to fix the stigma of infidelity on the materialist: we trust, however, without reason, and we shall anticipate Mr. Cooper's argument, by shortly explaining the subject. Identity, as Mr. Cooper has justly observed, is no more than similarity. Our bodies we consider as identically the same, after a series of some years, in which perhaps not an atom of them, as they were before, remains. Our internal consciousness then is fallacious; and when at any future period, our bodies, as they were at any given time, are raised with similar organizations, the same consciousness must result, and a just retribution will consequently take place. If it be alledged, that in such instances many different bodies may be raised, since the dust which has composed this body in the successive waste and repair, during a long life, must be sufficient to form many such bodies, it may be once replied, that similar particles with similar organizations can only form one body, however it may be apparently multiplied. But the matter does not rest on a logical quibble; it is evident that the great object of the Deity is to keep individuals as distinct, as species. The latter after a very slight change are no longer prolific, and return by degrees to their former figure; and individuals differ in form, in colour, and in organization, as implied by manners. This difference was undoubtedly ordained for wise purposes, beyond the present mode of existence,
and

and identity must, therefore, depend on organization. This conclusion is not very different from that of Mr. Cooper, who while he denies the existence of identity, allows peculiar organization. But we own that we rest on this as a foundation for a future step. What is it that determines this peculiar organization? what is the *moule interieure*, which, as Buffon has observed, directs the juxtaposition of particles with such exactness and regularity, that if a part is destroyed, it is filled again only to a certain extent; that only is supplied which was destroyed. We must refer to the system of pre-existent germs, a system which Mr. Cooper opposes: it is not indeed proved, but as probable as any consequence drawn from what we can see, to what is beyond our view. We mean now only to extend it to the immediate parent to avoid our author's ridicule, and we cannot enlarge the explanation. We may observe, that physiologists admit only of two solid parts of the human body, a fibrous and a cellular part. The former seems primæval and stationary, the latter is changeable. We have no instance of the former being supplied, except by an extension of the former fibres, and when they are destroyed, the part is generally filled with a cellular substance. The fibres are alone organized, and are only conspicuous in their more condensed state in the brain and nerves. They are less so in the muscles, less again in the nerves, and suspected rather than demonstrated in the membranes. The circulatory and lymphatic system is muscular*.

While we have been explaining our own opinion, we have in a great degree given Mr. Cooper's. It remains then only to add some account of the manner in which he has conducted the argument. He first gives the history of the opinions and disputes on the subject of identity, and points out the difficulties with which, in every system, it is loaded. He then proceeds to give his reasons why identity is an unnecessary and an untenable supposition. He dwells long on the transitory state of every animal, vegetable, and mineral body. They are continually changing, by the addition of new ingredients, and the destruction, or at least the separation of others, so that in no part can identity be supposed to consist. In every instance in which identity is supposed, he shows that similarity only can be proved; that identity in the language of modern metaphysicians, is neither inculcated by scripture, nor necessary to the scripture doctrine of a future state. So far as he has gone, we think he rests on good grounds; we could only wish to add what we

* Mr. Cooper must excuse us from being so peremptory: any modern work will support these opinions, which we could not stay to demonstrate in this place. We have stated nothing that recent discoveries have not rendered as certain as any physical truth, in some of its parts beyond the reach of direct experiment.

have already stated, and which we should have been glad to have been able to explain more fully. It may be said, that this, if admitted, instead of adding to Mr. Cooper's system, contradicts it: by no means, for his argument goes against our consciousness; against an immaterial principle supposed incapable of change; against the permanent state of our corporeal system in general; in short, against any principle of identity within our cognizance.

The last part of this volume is a summary of the Unitarian doctrine. If our account had not been already too copious, we should have been unwilling to have engaged at length in this dispute. Mr. Cooper argues against the Trinitarian doctrine as inconsistent and absurd, and adds those texts in which the Father, the Son, and the Holy Ghost are spoken of as distinct, in persons, and different in rank and power. In reply to the first we have often observed, that in explaining the union, we are measuring infinity by our finite understandings, we are calculating eternity by numbers, and computing the extent of the universe by a rule: besides that we admit many things in philosophy equally intelligible, and almost as apparently absurd. To the second, we might reply by urging other texts; but we have already said, that we trust rather to the general tenor of the Gospel than to particular passages, and this we think fully shews the divinity of Christ. We might now add some general praises of Mr. Cooper's work, if the whole of this article had not shown how highly we esteem his knowledge, his acuteness, and his judgment.

Historical and Biographical Sketches of the Progress of Botany in England, from its Origin to the Introduction of the Linnæan System. By Richard Pulteney, M. D. F. R. S. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Cadell. 1790.

WHILE in the more genial climates of Italy and Greece botany had advanced to some degree of perfection, the scanty productions of our own island attracted little notice. While the attention of mankind was necessarily drawn to the different properties of herbs, their forms were heedlessly considered, confusion reigned in the best herbals, or they were debased by the fancied virtue derived from forms, or the equally ridiculous supposed influence of constellations. The superstitious ceremonies annexed to the Druidical system of medical botany lead us to suppose, that to affect the minds was the chief object; and the real virtues of the mistletoe, the only vegetable that we know with certainty was employed by these sanguinary priests, seem to show, that their other boasted secrets were very trifling. If Muntingius is right, in thinking the vera herba

herba Britannica was the water-dock, it adds little to the credit of the system; nor will the virtues of the vervain, under the direction of Dr. Morley, increase our veneration of the Druidical doctrines, or our admiration of the medical success of the Druids. Various circumstances have contributed to the credit of different medicines, rather than any particular activity. The spring herbs, for instance, have no greater power, either as aperients or resolvents, than almost any other mild vegetable; but, after a long winter, when stall-feeding was unknown, and salt provisions constituted the chief food, the *first* vegetables were eagerly procured, when *any* vegetable would have been useful. The water-dock, as it survives mild winters in sheltered situations, might have been eagerly sought for, and its peculiar property of relieving the symptoms of scurvy, which, as most ostentatiously pointed out, was probably the most remarkable, may be accounted for on the same foundation. If the selago is the wolf's-claw moss, a species of lycopodium, we can also easily account for its supposed virtues. But if any reader of curiosity wishes to investigate this subject, it is probable that something of importance may be found in the Saxon herbals, as, even in those times, a little of the Druidical superstition remained in the most sequestered spots of this island. These MSS. herbals, our author tells us, are to be found in the Bodleian and Harleian collections.

The pleasing Sketches, which have occasioned these remarks, were designed in a more contracted form, as an introduction to an English Flora, which, if executed, would have been highly interesting and useful. Besides the usual descriptions, it was to have contained the medical and oeconomic history of each plant, a pinax comprehending the first discoverer, and the synonyms of each author in a chronological order. It is a vast and extensive plan, first sketched, perhaps, in the ardour of youth, and full of difficulties, even with the best assistances. In Dr. Pulteney's situation, it seems to have been impracticable. The introduction appears only to have been finished, and, with some miscellaneous enlargements, it is now published: it is executed with so much diligence, accuracy, and propriety, that we doubt not of its being received with great attention. Among the additions may probably be reckoned some notice of the works of authors, distinct from the science of botany, and a few miscellaneous remarks.

Our author begins from the earliest times, Druidical botany, a subject that we have in some degree anticipated in our introduction, and proceeds to the æra when the treasures of Greece and Rome were unfolded to our view through the medium of an imperfect translation, and the period when English botany began to be fashionable. These three æras comprize unequal

unequal portions of time, and the science was cultivated with disproportioned care. In the latter only can we examine the progress of English botany, which emerged from obscurity under Ray, and then first began to attain the rank of a science. Strictly speaking, the æra ought to conclude with the predecessors of Ray, for this very able and enlightened botanist is improperly confounded with the careless collectors, who preceded him; but we shall follow Dr. Pulteney, who scarcely breaks the narrative till he has explained the labours of the English Pliny.

For the reasons already assigned, we shall not enlarge farther on the botany of the Druids; and of the attainments of the Saxons in this line, Dr. Pulteney gives but a slight imperfect account. The manuscripts mentioned still sleep in their former obscurity; and of the translations, or the commentaries on the labours of the ancients, we meet with nothing particularly new or interesting. It is, as our author properly observes, a kind of digression from the subject of English botany.

Wooden cuts, the great assistants of the early botanists, were invented about the middle of the fifteenth century, and, soon afterwards, the Book of Nature was published in German: distant, far distant, from its near namesake, the *Biblia Naturæ* of Swammerdam, under the care of Boerhaave and Gausubius, though it treated of animals as well as of plants. The *Grete Herbal*, the first English printed book on the subject, appeared first in 1516. It seems to have been compiled from the *Ortus Sanitatis*, embellished, like that work, with coarse wooden cuts, seemingly rather as ornaments than as illustrations, since, in many instances, the same plate is prefixed to different plants, and, almost in every one, adds very little to the ideas of the learner. The Herbals of Ascham and Copland, which succeeded, added little to the English botany. The institutions of public gardens, at last imitated in England, greatly assisted the progress of the science, and the author's facts on this subject are worth recording.

‘ The first public institution of this kind, in more modern times, was that of Padua by the Venetians, in the year 1533. Lucas Ghinus, the first public professor of botany in Europe, was a strenuous promoter of the same designs; and by his influence procured the establishment of a garden at Bologna, in 1547, where Turner himself imbibed much of that knowledge, which afterwards gave him such pre-eminence in his own country.

‘ Among the earliest private gardens of the same kind, was that of Euricius Cordus, the disciple of the venerable Leoniceus, and of Manardus, two of the first commentators who displayed true Botanical criticism, on the works of the ancients. Cordus shewed himself afterwards worthy of such masters. In his *Botanologicon*,

logicon, printed in 1534, he mentions his own garden, and that of Nordecius at Cassel. About the same time there were several opulent patrons of this science in Italy, Germany, and France, who followed this example. Gesner constructed a garden at Zurich in 1560; the first of the kind in Switzerland. He not only delineated plants himself, but maintained, at his own expence, a draughtsman and engraver, for the same purposes. Turner appears to have had a garden for rare plants, even during his residence at Cologne. In England he records the garden of the duke of Somerset, at Sion House, of which he seems to have had the direction; and, at a later period, as hath been before observed, mentions also his own at Wells. — The first public garden at Oxford was instituted in 1632.

Turner was the first English author who seems to have understood and accurately to have described plants; yet his understanding and his accuracy were comparative only, and it is his greatest praise that he was commended by Gesner. He seems to have had botanic gardens at Wells, his deanery, and at Kew; and, besides botany, to have been well skilled in other parts of natural history, and particularly in medicine. His Herbal was only compiled a few months before his death, in 1568.

‘ The arrangement is alphabetical, according to the Latin names; and, after the description, he frequently specifies the places of growth. He is ample in his discrimination of the species, as his great object was, to ascertain the *Materia Medica* of the ancients, and of Dioscorides in particular, throughout the vegetable kingdom. To this end he bestows much criticism on the commentaries of Fuchsius, Tragus, Matthiolus, and other of his contemporaries; and professes to have corrected many of their mistakes, in the application of the names of Dioscorides. In all this he has shewn much judgment, and, I may add, much moderation, in avoiding, more than usual, the licence taken by many of the commentators, of applying the names of plants described in Theophrastus, Dioscorides, and Pliny, to those of the western parts of Europe. What he says of the virtues of plants, he has drawn from the ancients; but has, in numberless instances, given his opinion of their qualities, in opposition to those sages, and recorded his own experience of the virtues. He no where takes any doubtful plants upon trust, but appears to have examined them with all the precision usually exercised at a time when method, and principles now established, were unthought of; every where comparing them with the descriptions of the antients and moderns. He first gave names to many English plants; and, allowing for the time when specific distinctions were not established, when almost all the small plants were disregarded, and the *Cryptogamia* almost wholly overlooked, the number he was acquainted with, is much

much beyond what could easily have been imagined, in an original writer on his subject.'—The third part contains the account of plants not known to Dioscorides, and, in each, the figures are sometimes misplaced.

Dr. Bulleyn, who succeeded Turner, was a zealous defender of gardening, and of the fertility of the soil of England, as well as the perfection of our own products. From this circumstance, and from the finding in Parkinson's *Paradisus*, such a variety of culinary herbs, roots, and fruits, as must have been the consequence of long and careful cultivation, our author suspects that the vegetable produce of this kingdom was more copious than has been represented. On this subject, we believe, there are not a sufficient number of facts to enable us to decide. We may be allowed to observe, that there were, at that time, no public gardens, that the more hardy esculent plants were unknown, and the price of vegetables disproportionably high. What were the consequences? The scurvy was called, from its frequent occurrence, the English disease, and the varieties of culinary vegetables may have been as well imported from France or Flanders, the great sources of our vegetable acquisitions, as have been produced by culture in this kingdom. We own, from every information we can procure, our opinion is very different from that of Dr. Pulteney.

Various authors, particularly Penny, Maplet, Morning, and Lyt, follow; but they added little to English botany. With Lobel, a Fleming, its dawn commenced; and, in his work, there are the first rudiments of a natural method, in a state incorrect and imperfect indeed, but valuable as they are the first. Lobel followed Turner very nearly, for his *Adversaria* were published before the *Herbal* of the latter was compiled. Before the end of the century, appeared Gerard's *Herbal*, the manual of botanists for near a century; and not yet wholly laid aside. It was founded on the *Pemptades* of Dodoens, and illustrated by the figures cut for the Dutch *Herbal* of *Tabernaemontanus*, in 1588.

Johnson, an apothecary, was the improver of Gerard, and the editor of his *Herbal* in its best and most perfect state, in consequence of the advantages derived from various publications, which had appeared in the course of thirty-six years. Besides the corrections, he tells us, that he added more than eight hundred plants, and seven hundred figures. Johnson was the author of some original publications also, and was an able and intelligent botanist.

Parkinson was the next, whose works, in this outline, where it is impossible to mention every botanist, deserve our attention. He was the author of a work, entitled in the quaint fanciful language of that age, *Paradisus in Sole*, *Paradisus Ter-*

restris, containing an account of culinary herbs and fruit-trees, which we have particularly mentioned, as our historian has, in general, omitted the authors on the apple-tree, its different varieties, and the methods of making cyder. It may indeed be alledged, that the subject of cyder was not within his plan, but, if he could engage in the defence of the English air, and the culinary plants, he might have shown that the climate was also adapted to this kind of vinous liquor; and it was more near to his purpose to have remarked, with what accuracy the different kinds of fruit-trees were then ascertained and described. In the *Paradisus*, as it is generally styled, the cuts are new, but inferior in execution to those of Gerard; and it may be remarked that, at this time, besides sixteen distinct species, there were an hundred and twenty varieties of the tulip, sixty anemonies, more than ninety narcissuses, fifty hyacinths, as many carnations, twenty pinks, thirty crocuses, and above forty irises. The orchard afforded sixty kinds of plums, as many apples and pears, thirty kinds of cherries, and above twenty of peaches. The greatest work of Parkinson was, however, the *Theatrum Botanicum*, still known, and sometimes consulted. The original observations to be found in the *Theatrum*, show that Parkinson was not a copyist merely, and that his system has not been appreciated properly by his contemporaries or successors. His classification is chiefly taken from the qualities of plants; in a few instances, where they were striking, from their habits. In fact, botany was made subservient to the materia medica in its worst form, that of Galen. The number of plants described are near 3800. The blocks were new and not excellent; but it was near the period when wood was superseded by metal.

Seguier is of opinion the first Herbal with wooden cuts was the "*Puch der Natur*," "*The Book of Nature*," printed at Augsburgh, in 1478, if not three years earlier. These are thought to have passed into the *Herbarius*, printed at Mentz in 1484; from which book was compiled the *Ortus Sanitatis*, printed at the same place in 1485; with improvements in the work in general, and better figures, by Cuba. Of this work some notice has before been taken, as the foundation of the English "*Grete Herbal*," first printed here in 1516.

The *Hortus Sanitatis* was translated into various languages, and in some new modelled, without concealing its origin, according to the fancy of different editors and printers; and passed through innumerable editions on the continent; having been the popular book on the subject, as the "*Grete Herbal*" was in England, for fifty or sixty years.

• It does not appear that Cuba was publicly known as the author of

of the Hortus Sanitatis, until Egenolf, a bookseller of Frankfort, gave an improved edition, with an entirely new set of figures, under the care of Eucharius Rhodion or Roesslin, a physician of the same city, in 1533. Egenolf's book passed through various editions, until a better work was composed by Dorsten, under the title of "*Botanicon*," in 1540, at Frankfort; in which the same figures were employed. They were used also in the "*Encyclopædia Medica*" of J. Dryander, in 1542; and in the succeeding year, in an edition of Dioscorides, by Herman Ryff, printed by Egenolf. Finally, Adam Lonicer, the son-in-law of Egenolf, having totally reformed the work of Cuba, employed them in his Herbal, printed in 1546. In succeeding editions, he introduced new figures, took others from Tragus to the number in the whole of 880, and composed a work, which passed through a great number of editions, and was not superseded in the present century, as appears by an edition printed so lately as in 1723, and even in 1737. — These were superseded by Brunsfelsius in 1532, which were excelled by those of Fuchsius in 1542, all which were monopolized by Plantin, the printer, who added a greater variety, in the best style of that æra.

Gesner's excellent figures adorned the epitome of Mathiolus, published by Camerarius, a translation of this work, under the name of the German Herbal, the Herbal of Castor Durantus, printed at Frankfort, the Parnassus Medicinalis Illustratus of Becher, published at Ulm in 1663, Verzascha's German Herbal, taken from Mathiolus, and the Theatrum Botanicum, an improvement of Verzascha, published at Basil in 1696. Turner's history was embellished with Fuchsius' blocks, to which about an hundred new ones were added. Lyte's were also taken from Fuchsius with about thirty new ones. The blocks of Gerard and Parkinson we have already mentioned.

The botanical garden founded at Oxford, as we have said, in 1632, occasioned the publication of local catalogues; but Dr. How first published an English Flora, distinct from the Botanical History of Exotics in 1650. The plants are arranged in an alphabetical order, with a few synonyms from some authors on the continent, as well as from Gerard, Parkinson, and Lobel. His list contains 1220 plants, some of which appear to be described from the remains of Lobel. These, however, were separately published by Dr. How, five years afterwards.

The Tradescants, the great cultivators of natural history in England, and of botany, though not exclusively of English botany, are well known. Their garden and museum were greatly frequented, and highly esteemed. The Astrological Physicians follow, and with them, though with some apology, our author classes the industrious, the laborious, but the too cre-

dulous Salmon. These authors are, however, eclipsed by the merit of Ray, a subject on which our historian and biographer dwells with peculiar pleasure, and a subject we may add deserving of his peculiar care.

With Ray a new æra of botany commences. To the most careful enquiry he united minute investigation, and to an accuracy of discrimination of which there was no previous example. In his system a great number of new plants were inserted, but, from a more accurate distinction of species and varieties, the apparent number was not greatly increased. He added, not to the bulk but to the stock of knowledge; and, in the arrangement, he approached very near to a natural system. The knowledge of botany was not at that period scientific, a term which we must afterwards enlarge on; but, in the hands of Ray, the rudiments of science were first observable, rudiments which, perhaps, should have been attended to with more care, and developed with more attention. A natural system is in many respects desirable, though probably an artificial one may have its peculiar advantages for general use. The success of the cultivation of botany, however, as a science, must always be estimated by the progress and improvement of natural classes.

Dr. Pulteney gives the life of Ray, chiefly from the *Biographia Britanica*, an account taken from the 'Remains,' of which the materials were collected by Dr. Derham. A pretty full account of his works, not only in botany, but on other parts of natural history, and of his travels, is added in the order of their publication. We shall transcribe only our author's character of this extraordinary naturalist.

' Incited by the most ardent genius, which overcame innumerable difficulties and discouragements, his labours were, in the end, crowned with a success, before almost unequalled. He totally reformed the studies of botany and zoology; he raised them to the dignity of a science, and placed them in an advantageous point of view; and, by his own investigations, added more real improvement to them in England, than any of his predecessors.

' He invented and defined many terms, expressive of ideas before unknown to the naturalists of England; and introduced many others, from writers of the best note. As he wrote Latin in great purity, and with great facility, he gave his subjects all the embellishments that learning could bestow; and his extensive erudition, and knowledge of philosophy at large, enabled him to add many collateral ornaments, and useful observations, with an aptitude and judgment that has been much applauded.

' The extent of his improvements in science procured him the admiration of his contemporaries, and have justly transmitted his
name

name to posterity, among those who have done honour to their age and country. Even learned foreigners have been eloquent in his praise. French writers have styled him the "English Tournefort;" an eulogy that sufficiently evinced the high opinion they had of his merit.'

' To all these endowments he joined an unremitting industry and perseverance in the prosecution of his studies; and, what marks a fortitude of mind as uncommon as it is enviable, his assiduity seemed to strengthen with his age, and to bid a defiance to the encroachments of infirmity, and the prospect of dissolution. I call to witness the magnitude of the attempt, and successful issue of his exertions, in writing the supplemental volume to his "History of Plants," and in beginning the "Historia Insectorum" at so late a period of his life.

' His singular modesty, affability, and communicative disposition, secured to him the esteem of all who knew him; and his eminent talents as a naturalist and a philosopher procured him many patrons and friends, and preserved him from that obscurity, which would otherwise probably have been his lot: for, notwithstanding his learning and probity, as his principles did not accord with those of the times, they were adverse to his fortune, and he gained no emoluments in the church. He had relinquished his fellowship at the commencement of the Bartholomew act, not, as some imagined, from his having taken the solemn league and covenant (for that he never did, and often declared, that he ever thought it an unlawful oath), but because he could not declare, agreeably to the terms of the act, that the oath was not binding on those who had taken it. Hence too, his constant refusal of preferment afterwards, occasioned him to be ranked, by many, among the nonconformists, although he lived and died in the communion of the church of England. He had seen, with deep regret, the disorders of the commonwealth and the usurpation, and afterwards, not less, the threatening aspect of the reign of James II.

' His strong attachment to the principles of civil and religious liberty, is manifested by his animated style, in the preface to his "Synopsis;" where he expresses, in glowing terms, his joy and gratitude, for having lived to see those blessings established by the Revolution.

' The character of Mr. Ray cannot be contemplated by those who have a true relish for the studies of nature, without a high sentiment of respect and gratitude; nor by those who consider the exemplariness of his life as a man, and his qualifications as a divine, without veneration.'

To this period, as it is the æra of Cowley, our author refers the poetical botanists, and mentions the most remarkable

poets, who have celebrated the beauties and the 'Loves' of the vegetable world. Dr. Merret's Pinax, a work next mentioned, was intended to supply the defects of How, and it is still in many respects a valuable one. Morrifon's History of Plants succeeded, and it is followed in these Sketches by an account of Bobart's Continuation, for Morrifon published only the herbaceous plants. His fifteen classes are, in general, composed of natural orders, though occasionally admitting plants too dissimilar to be united in a natural system. Indeed it seems to have been a common error to make the natural orders too few. At first they should be numerous, and it is only after much attention, frequent investigation, and new discoveries, that it is admissible to lessen the number, when the several relations of different plants have been more carefully examined and are better understood. New discoveries will assist in forming new orders of the singular plants which may remain, for in nature there is no vacuity; the links are connected, and we think them separated, because we see only in part. But we are going too far: the observations on system, and the farther consideration of this interesting work, we must reserve for a future Number.

(To be continued.)

Select Specimens in Natural History, collected in Travels to discover the Source of the Nile, in Egypt, Arabia, Abyssinia, and Nubia, an Appendix to the Travels of James Bruce, Esq.

(See Vol. LXX. p. 659.)

BEFORE we could examine the Appendix to these Travels, it was necessary to consider a question, for a long time disputed, how far Mr. Bruce's descriptions were those of an eye-witness, or how far he might be considered as a collector in eastern countries, distant from the scenes he professed to have visited. But, however extraordinary some parts of his Journal might appear, we could find nothing inconsistent with the accounts of other travellers, no passages in which he was inconsistent with himself: we have reason then to think that these are real observations, and drawings from nature, taken, as he professes, by means of a camera obscura, for whatever his talents as a draughtsman in general may be, it requires only a steady hand to copy the outlines in an instrument of this kind.

Mr. Bruce has chiefly confined his attentions to those plants which the observations of succeeding ages have rendered interesting, but of which time, alterations of culture, uncertain descriptions, or accidents, have almost rendered the existence doubtful;

doubtful; to plants which furnish manufactures, food, or medicines, and to some which are hitherto unknown. The real vegetable productions of Egypt are probably few; but from this circumstance we draw a very different conclusion from that of our author, and it would lead us to believe it *was* the 'gift of the Nile.' It may, however, be more probably owing to the annual inundations, which will be fatal to all but the aquatics, those amphibious plants which are not injured by too much water, or those hardy ones which scarcely any change will hurt. A few others have been defended from the inundations by raised gardens, but of the vegetable riches described by Prosper Alpinus, many were not natives of Egypt, and a great number are lost. The animals selected in this Appendix are those mentioned in Scripture, or on which some doubts have arisen. The fishes are those which are connected with the trade of the Red Sea, as it was formerly carried on; but our author tells us that he has more than three hundred specimens from the Arabian Gulf alone, besides the species of fish which are engraved in this volume.

The first vegetable is the papyrus, a plant probably of Syria, and not adapted for the rapid current of the Nile. If we recollect rightly, Pliny expressly says, that it grew in the stagnant waters in the neighbourhood of the river. This was the plant of which paper was originally made, and to which the name is owing; but it is an esculent plant also, chewed by the natives on account of its sweet juice, though the enfete, a kind of banana, is in general preferred for this purpose. We have supposed it a plant of Syria, as without care it could not easily grow in Egypt, and the intended monopoly of paper, which urged Eumenes to employ parchment, seems to be owing to his ignorance of the use of the plant, rather than of its existence. Reasoning of this kind is, however, very inconclusive. At what time it was first made into paper is very doubtful; since, before it was known, the leaves of the palm, or more probably of the mallows, were employed for that purpose, and the names of these leaves, or of the places from whence they came, still continued as synonyms for the Egyptian paper. *Phylræ*, *tilia*, *coddicilli*, and *folia*—the two last still continued in code and folio, are words of this kind, besides *tabella* from the form, *pagillares* from the manner of writing, *tænia*, *tænotica*, and *tanitica*, from *tani*, &c. We ought to remark, that our author's quotations, to prove the antiquity of this mode of employing the papyrus, are too vague, and after some care, in following the references, we do not find that they support his positions. The other uses of the papyrus, for boats and covers for books, occur in various authors.

‘ In a large and very perfect manuscript in my possession, which was dug up at Thebes, the boards are of papyrus root, covered first with the coarser pieces of the paper, and then with leather, in the same manner as it would be done now. It is a book one would call a small folio, rather than by any other name, and I apprehended that the shape of the book where papyrus is employed was always of the same form with those of the moderns. The letters are strong, deep, black, and apparently written with a reed, as is practised by the Egyptians and Abyssinians still. It is written on both sides, so never could be rolled up as parchment was, nor would the brittleness of the materials when dry, support any such frequent unrolling. This probably arises from their having first written upon papyrus, after the use of stone was laid aside, and only adopted skins upon their embracing the Jewish religion. The Ethiopians, indeed, write upon parchment, yet use the same form of books as we do. The outer boards are made of wood and covered with leather. It was the law only they say there were in use to preserve in one long roll of parchment, upon the fore-side of which it was written; it being indecent and improper to write any part of it on the back, or a less honourable place of the skin: and such was the roll we have just mentioned as presented to Ptolemy, where such pains were taken in joining the several skins together, for this very reason.’

The next vegetable is the balsam or balsam-tree. It originally grew on the Abyssinian side of the Straits of the Arabian Gulf, and afterwards on the southern and western coast of Arabia. It was transplanted, as an alien, to Judea; but the suspicion that it was ever an object of traffic from that country appears to be wholly unfounded. The passage in Genesis adduced (xxxvii. 25.) shows only that the merchants came from Gilead; but without the least hint that this circuitous passage was intended for adding the ‘balm’ to their cargo. It may be observed also, that the word translated balm, is differently rendered by later translators, particularly by Dathe. The properties of the genuine balsam are not very different from those mentioned by Hasselquist, except that the latter author says it is easily diffusible on water, instead of mixing with it.

Theassa-tree next occurs. It produces, in our author’s opinion, the gum styled opocalpasum, sometimes mixed with the myrrh, and which Mr. Bruce thinks is not poisonous as Galen has represented it. But the myrrh-tree is yet unknown. This gum is chiefly employed in manufactures; in softening and glazing the Surat cloth, and it is produced in great plenty.

The species of mimosa follow; the latter (ergett-el-krone) greatly resembles the plant from which the terra Japonica is produced. Both kinds shut their leaves in the violent rains of winter,

winter, and are never fully expanded till the sun and fair season again return.

The enfete, our author contends, is not a banana, or a species of musa: the esculent part is the body of the young plant, not the fruit.

‘ We see in some of the Egyptian antique statues the figure of Isis sitting between some branches of the banana tree, as it is supposed, and some handfuls of ears of wheat; you see likewise the hippopotamus ravaging a quantity of banana tree. Yet the banana is merely adventitious in Egypt, it is a native of Syria; it does not even exist in the low hot country of Arabia Felix, but chooses some elevation in the mountains where the air is temperate, and is not found in Syria farther to the southward than lat. 34°.

‘ After all, I do not doubt that it might have grown in Mattareah, or in the gardens of Egypt or Rosetto; but it is not a plant of the country, and could never have entered into the list of their hieroglyphics; for this reason, it could not figure any thing permanent or regular in the history of Egypt or its climate. I therefore imagine that this hieroglyphic was wholly Ethiopian, and that the supposed banana, which, as an adventitious plant, signified nothing in Egypt, was only a representation of the enfete, and that the record in the hieroglyphic of Isis and the enfete-tree was something that happened between harvest, which was about August, and the time the enfete-tree became to be in use, which is in October.

‘ The hippopotamus is generally thought to represent a Nile that has been so abundant as to be destructive. When therefore we see upon the obelisks the hippopotamus destroying the banana, we may suppose it meant that the extraordinary inundation had gone so far as not only to destroy the wheat, but also to retard or hurt the growth of the enfete, which was to supply its place. I do likewise conjecture, that the bundle of branches of a plant which Horus Apollo says the ancient Egyptians produced as the food on which they lived before the discovery of wheat, was not the papyrus, as he imagines, but this plant, the enfete, which retired to its native Ethiopia upon a substitute being found better adapted to the climate of Egypt.’

The kol-quall is a very peculiar plant, in appearance not unlike the torch thistle; except that from the top various branches of a similar shape are thrown out. Some attempts of this kind are occasionally observed in the torch thistle, but they are inconsiderable, and, in that plant, are a kind of sucker or young vegetable thrown off to continue the species. In the ‘kol-quall’ there are flowers from the side, as in the creeping cereus. The juice is milky, and highly acrid.

The rack-tree is a beautiful plant that grows within low-

water mark; and the *geshe el aube* is a new grass, of which goats are said to be peculiarly fond. The *kantuffe* is in appearance handsome, but its numerous little thorns render it very troublesome and disagreeable to travellers. The *gaguedi* is remarkable in the appearance of its flower, but seems not to be distinguished by any useful property. The *wanzey* bears white flowers, like those of the *convolvulus*, though it is a plant of a very different kind. Its uses are unknown; but it is planted, perhaps from its numerous blossoms, near the houses in Abyssinia; and by the Galli some superstitious veneration is annexed to it.

The *Farek*, or the *Bauhinia acuminata*, grows near the source of the Nile, and it leads Mr. Bruce to exculpate himself from the charge of M. Jussieu, who had accused him of profound ignorance on botanical subjects; but the charges and the exculpation we must leave without a remark.

The *Kuara* is a singular plant, very beautiful, denominated from the country where it is found. As this is the region of gold, its bean, which our author found scarcely in any instance to vary materially in weight, became the weight of gold and its name *carat* still remains. From Africa the Indians borrowed the plant, or lent it to this district, with the purposes to which the bean was applied, and it became the weight of the diamond.

The *walkuffa* greatly resembles in its leaf and its blossom the cherry-tree; the wood is heavy, but, contrary to the usual opinion, our author contends that it will swim in water. It appears to be a very beautiful tree; and Mr. Bruce tells us that the drawing is executed with peculiar care. It is not indeed easy to praise sufficiently the spirit and elegance of all these engravings.

The *Brucea antidysenterica* we have often had occasion to notice; and shall therefore only add, that our author mentions its peculiar medical effects. It seems to be a narcotic bitter, and therefore well adapted to a disease which, perhaps, consists in a peculiar exanthematous eruption on the interior surface of the large intestines. We hope it will not lose its virtues in European ground.

The *Bankfia Abyssinica* is the *cusso* of Ethiopia, and we trust it will prove an equally useful remedy in a disease as obstinate, though not so dangerous, as the dysentery, viz. *ascarides*, for which it is used with success in that country. The *teff* is an herbaceous plant, which produces the bread and the beer of the Abyssinians. In each instance it attains the first stage of the acetous fermentation, and in each it seems by no means unwholesome: at least the best sorts seem not to be so.

These

These are all the vegetables noticed by our author, which we have mentioned shortly, in a popular rather than a scientific way, for since Mr. Bruce trusts to naturalists to ascertain the genera and species of those which are less known, it was improper to engage in doubtful and uncertain disquisitions of this kind. In general, the minute parts are distinguished with sufficient accuracy to enable the botanist to arrange these plants in their proper places.

The quadrupeds noticed in this Appendix are the rhinoceros, the hyæna, the jerboa, the fennec, the ashkoko, and the booted lynx. We shall follow our author's remarks in their order, commencing with his more general observations.

Quadrupeds are said to be numerous in Abyssinia, and the cow kind to be particularly conspicuous in every place, for vegetable food is luxuriant in a genial soil, and under a warm but not too fervid sun. A carnivorous cow is a creature of the imagination, only invented to add another wonder to the novelties of Africa, proverbial from the days of Aristotle, and to find some use for the monstrous horns, whose growth Mr. Bruce has already explained. The buffalo, the wildest species, is fierce, brutal, and indocile, while, in Egypt, it is remarkably tame, familiar, and submissive. The gazels are also numerous: there are few varieties of the dog or fox kind; but the jackall is common, and the hyænas, which in this country approach the dogs, or perhaps the wolf in appearance, are frequently met with. There are no tigers in Abyssinia, and the panther and the lion are confined to the low hot country. The wild boars are numerous, and the rhinoceros, which is of the same natural order, is often hunted. The elephant and camelopardalis are known to be inhabitants of Africa; but hares, though accounted unclean, and consequently not eaten, are not frequent: the rabbit is unknown. The ass is sometimes found in the low countries, though there are no zebras. The crocodile and hippopotamus are known to be inhabitants of this district; and our author adds, that no good figure or description of either is extant. Of the crocodile this is certainly true; but if it had not been for accidental circumstances, our author might have admitted Dr. Sparrman's account of the hippopotamus to be good. Sparrman was not, however, a favourer of Buffon, for the reasons which we explained in our account of the Swedish Naturalist's Travels, and some little disagreement occurred respecting the description of an animal found at Algiers between Dr. Sparrman and Mr. Bruce: the former therefore receives no favour in this Appendix. He is treated with unremitting and unreasonable severity.

The rhinoceros, we have said, resembles a boar, but differs from it in the thickness of his skin, the duplicatures formed

med to facilitate the motions of this unwieldy animal, and above all, by the horn on his forehead. There is a species with a single and another with a double horn. There may perhaps be a third which has three horns, since in some instances our author has seen the rudiments of a third horn; but this perhaps may be a little deviation in consequence of the luxuriance of nature's bounty, and differs little from the instances of additional teeth or fingers in the human species. The monoceros, our author thinks, was the unicorn of the ancients, and is severe on Sparrman for suspecting that a real unicorn, as it was described, ever existed. Mr. Bruce, however, takes a little too rashly the opposite side of the question. We may as well suppose the whole description to be a fable as any part of it; and the slight resemblance in a single horn is of little consequence, when compared with the very great difference between the unwieldy ugly rhinoceros, and the elegant unicorn as it has been described and painted. We mean not to say that the unicorn exists, but that Mr. Bruce, in attacking Dr. Sparrman, has left himself defenceless.

‘ It is very remarkable, that two such animals as the elephant and rhinoceros should have wholly escaped the description of the sacred writers. Moses, and the children of Israel, were long in the neighboured of the countries that produced them, both while in Egypt and Arabia. The classing of the animals into clean and unclean, seems to have led the legislator into a kind of necessity of describing, in one of the classes, an animal, which made the food of the principal Pagan nations in the neighbourhood. Considering the long and intimate connection Solomon had with the south-coast of the Red Sea, it is next to impossible that he was not acquainted with them, as both David his father, and he, made plentiful use of ivory, as they frequently mention in their writings, which, along with gold, came from the same part. Solomon, besides, wrote expressly upon Zoology, and, we can scarce suppose, was ignorant of two of the principal articles of that part of the creation, inhabitants of the great continent of Asia east from him, and that of Africa on the south, with both which territories he was in constant correspondence.

‘ There are two animals, named frequently in scripture, without naturalists being agreed what they are. The one is the behemoth, the other the reem, both mentioned as the types of strength, courage, and independence on man, and as such exempted from the ordinary lot of beasts, to be subdued by him, or reduced under his dominion. Tho’ this is not to be taken in a literal sense, for there is no animal without the fear or beyond the reach of the power of man, we are to understand this as applicable to animals possessed of strength and size so superlative as that in these qualities other beasts bear no proportion to them.

* The behemoth, then, I take to be the elephant; his history is well known, and my only business is with the reem, which I suppose to be the rhinoceros. The derivation of this word, both in the Hebrew and the Ethiopic, seems to be from erectness, or standing straight. This is certainly no particular quality in the animal itself, who is not more, or even so much erect as many other quadrupeds, for, in its knees it is rather crooked; but is it from the circumstance and manner in which his horn is placed. The horns of all other animals are inclined to some degree of parallelism, with his nose, or *os frontis*. The horn of the rhinoceros alone is erect and perpendicular to this bone, on which it stands at right angles, thereby possessing a greater purchase, or power, as a lever, than any horn could possibly have in any other position.'

In the subsequent part, where our author endeavours more pointedly to show from the references to the reem in the Old Testament, that this was the rhinoceros, he proves only that it was a strong, ferocious, and indocile animal, qualities also of the supposed unicorn, and of the African buffalo, as well as of the rhinoceros. Indeed the passages quoted from Job (xxxix. 10.) and from Isaiah (xxxiv. 7.) seem to show that the buffalo was really intended. The name of the rhinoceros in the Gees and Amharic, signifies the beast with the horn, and the reem is rendered in the Ethiopic texts by the same words. But it is useless to pursue a dispute of this kind on such fallacious ground: if the unicorn has ever existed, it exists probably no more.

The horns of the African rhinoceros, for in Africa the species with the double horn is almost exclusively found, while the other is seemingly confined to Asia, are in the same line from the point of the nose upwards towards the head. The first is round, a little curved towards the top, the other flattish like a knife, the edge of which is before. The round horn is exceedingly sensible; but the other seems to resemble a bony epiphysis as much as a horn, and the seeming third horn may be of a similar kind. The rhinoceros is phytivorous, devouring the more succulent branches of trees, and the softer parts of the trunk, the bark of which its horn enables it to divide. The frequent supposed battles of the rhinoceros and elephant our author thinks to be without foundation, while each is in its native forest. The tongue of the young animal is said to be soft, that of the old one rough and callous; the young one has, he says, no pustules, unless they are *derived from the imagination of the mother*, whose lower parts, having few wrinkles or folds in the skin, cannot hold the mud with which it usually defends itself from the fly. This curious subterfuge is adopted because Buffon had observed that the pustules were found in the young rhinoceros.

The motion of this animal is sufficiently quick, though of the short shuffling kind, and not equal to that of a horse. It escapes by pushing through the forest, and wounding or killing his pursuers by the recoil of the trees, which he bends in his progress. The eyes are small, and the head is imperfectly moveable: it rolls in the mud grunting like a hog, and from it really collects the minuter animals observed in the duplicature of the skin, and described by the surgeon of the Shaftsbury Indiaman. The rhinoceros is fierce, brutal, and indocile; it may be tamed, but is incapable of instruction.

The hyæna of Abyssinia is of the dog kind, as is every hyæna that we have seen. The other species, in some measure resembling the hog, is found in Asia. Mr. Bruce tells us that he has seen it, as described by Buffon on Mount Libanus. It is the fiercest animal of that country, and is found in great numbers. Our author thinks that the hyæna's food is not naturally flesh, but having tasted it, or from necessity, this animal almost wholly feeds on it, though he does not dislike vegetables. The unquiet state of the eastern countries, the frequent plunder, and, in consequence, murder, furnish the hyæna with his meals. In Barbary he is impudent and seemingly fearless, but inactive unless pursued, wounded, or in the twilight. In the day-time, or in a strong light, he is stupid and senseless. In Abyssinia he walks boldly in the day-time, and when used to man's flesh attacks him fearlessly, but prefers the horse or mule if the person is riding. No dog, however fierce, will touch him in the field.

The jerboa is a small harmless animal, which we have often had occasion to mention; it is of the rat kind, with legs disproportionally long, adapted for springing rather than for walking. It is not the saphan of scripture, but what is translated mouse in different places, and, therefore, according to the canons, unclean*. It is the two-footed rat of the ancient naturalists. The best account of this animal is in the Russian travels, and perhaps we may receive some intelligence of it from New South Wales, as this seems to be the prevailing form of their quadrupeds.

The fennec, the fatal animal that has occasioned the disagreement between Mr. Bruce and Dr. Sparrman, is a beautiful creature, nearer perhaps to the squirrel than the weasel, as it is styled in the Arabian authors. It is found in many different parts of the African continent, and universally builds its nest on trees. He cannot, therefore, be the saphan.

The ashkoko, a little animal without any tail, between the

* Isaiah, chap. lvi. 17.

rat and the rabbit, is the creature distinguished by Solomon for his minuteness and his wisdom. He lives in the clefts of rocks, and is timid, mild, and gentle. It is the cuniculus of the Psalmist, for whom the stony rocks are provided.

The ashkoko is above all other animals so much attached to the rock, that I never once saw him on the ground, or from among large stones in the mouth of caves, where is his constant residence; he is gregarious, and lives in families. He is in Judea, Palestine, and Arabia, and consequently must have been familiar with Solomon. For David describes him very pertinently, and joins him with other animals perfectly known to all men: "The hills are a refuge for the wild goats, and the rocks for the saphan, or ashkoko." And Solomon says, "There be four things which are little upon the earth, but they are exceeding wise:"—"The saphannim are but a feeble folk, yet make they their houses in the rocks." Now this, I think, very obviously fixes the ashkoko to be the saphan, for this weakness seems to allude to his feet, and how inadequate these are to dig holes in the rock, where yet, however, he lodges. These are, as I have already observed, perfectly round; very pulpy, or fleshy, so liable to be excoriated or hurt, and of a soft fleshy substance. Notwithstanding which, they build houses in the very hardest rocks, more inaccessible than those of the rabbit, and in which they abide in greater safety; not by exertion of strength, for they have it not, but are truly as Solomon says, a feeble folk, but by their own sagacity and judgment, and are therefore justly described as wise. Lastly, what leaves the thing without doubt is, that some of the Arabs, particularly Damir, say, that the saphan has no tail; that it is less than a cat, and lives in houses, that is, not houses with men, as there are few of these in the country where the saphan is; but that he builds houses, or nests of straw, as Solomon has said of him, in contradistinction to the rabbit, and rat, and those other animals, that burrow in the ground, who cannot be said to build houses, as is expressly said of him.

The last animal is the booted lynx, so called from the black mark about half way up the back part of his leg. It lives near pools of water, in order to catch its chief prey, the Guinea-hen, but it is in no respect an object of curiosity or importance.

The extent of these observations prevents us from finishing this volume, as we intended, in the present Article. We purpose to resume it, and to conclude the whole in our next Number.

Medical Commentaries for the Year 1790. By Andrew Duncan, M. D. F. R. S. and A. S. Ed. Vol. V. 8vo. 6s. boards. Robinsons. 1791.

DR. Duncan continues this publication with his usual punctuality and attention, though we have still to regret in some measure the choice of the works selected for analysis, and

and particularly his anachronisms. He may perhaps comfort himself with the old adage 'better late than never.' There are some works, however, of which we receive the account with gratitude, because we could not probably receive them in any other way.

Dr. Ekman's Thesis, in the presidentship of M. Acrell at Upsal, is a more elaborate work than theses usually are, though we need scarcely remind our readers that in foreign universities they are almost exclusively the work of the president. It is on the softness of the bones, which is considered as a particular disorder, under the name of Osteomalachia. He divides it into four species, the hereditary, the rachitic, the cachectic, and the partial, forming a genus of disease, systematically constructed, and properly discriminated. Under the first head, our author gives a very curious history of a family, which, during three generations, were distinguished from this cause by peculiar deformities. There appears to have been no exception either in the boys or girls, though the mothers were healthy women, for in no instance had the female part of the family any child. They did not live in a peculiar situation, or on a peculiar diet. The second species is sufficiently known. The third species our author thinks may occur independent of any scrophulous, scorbutic, or venereal affection: it is usually preceded by severe pains, and a singular case of it is subjoined. The fourth kind is, in Dr. Ekman's opinion, owing to some previous bruise, or other injury of the vessels which send their branches to the bone affected. The cause is evidently from a want of a proper deposition of bony matter by the arteries, while the absorption goes on by the lymphatics. The deficiency is said to be owing to some stimulus, either of unwholesome food, different cutaneous diseases, &c. which prevent digestion, and deprive the body of its proper nutriment.

The next dissertation is by M. Æjmelæus, under the presidentship of M. Thunberg, on the tree which produces the *boa upas*, the most fatal poison of the vegetable world. It is the *arbor toxicaria* of Rumphius; and, in our author's opinion, very nearly allied to, if not of the same genus with, the *cestrum*. It is a lurid tree, whose bark is of a very dark colour; no vegetable will grow near it, and the ground below it is dry and barren. The poison is the resinous juice, and its effects are best described by Fontana, in his elaborate work on poisons.

'The poisonous quality of this tree is very dreadful. From the mere halitus which it emits, the limbs are as it were congealed, and at the same time affected with spasms. If any one shall stand under it with his head bare, a loss of hair is the consequence; and if a
drop

drop from the tree falls upon any part, an excessive swelling arises. Even the air about this tree is so infected, that birds, from sitting on its branches, in a short time fall down dead; and they can even with difficulty fly over it. And not only do no vegetables grow under it, but the ground is barren for near a stone-cast around it. The poison of the female tree, however, is said to be much weaker; and from that reason it is employed for catching wild beasts. It is not used for poisoning weapons, unless mixed with the stronger kind: but by this the power of both is supposed to be increased.

‘When any person is wounded with a dart upon which this poison has been rubbed, it very quickly diffuses itself through every part, exciting a violent sense of heat, and great vertigo, to which death soon succeeds. The poisoned weapons, in general, preserve their power for about two years; although, in some instances, it is entirely gone in a few months. It is chiefly fatal from immediate admission into the blood; and accordingly, Rumphius asserts, that the inhabitants of the Celebes sometimes venture to employ it as a remedy internally.’

It is said to be an antidote to other poisons, to relieve malignant ulcers and cutaneous eruptions. As a plaister it relieves the pain and mitigates the danger arising from the bites of poisonous insects. Its antidotes are the juice of the crinus asiaticus internally; the juice of the melopepo, the bruised bark of the ficus racemosa, or the milky juice of a tree called by the Macassarians Pule or Rite, externally.—The mungos or ophiorhiza is the most certain antidote either externally or internally.

Dr. Haft, under the direction also of M. Thunberg, tells us, that the tree which produces the cloves, instead of being a distinct genus, as has been supposed, is a species of eugenia, from the class icosandria. It grows now in the Isle of France and in Cayenne in South America. The description of the method of collecting the cloves is, we believe, new; but in the account of their qualities we meet with nothing very remarkable.

The following dissertation also of M. Thunberg is on the nutmeg-tree, the myristica moschata, of which a description is subjoined, as well as of another species of the same genus the m. tomentosa. The account of the mode of collecting and managing the nutmeg is very particular, and though not wholly new, is more full than any other we remember to have seen.

The last thesis from Upsal is by M. Segerstedt, or rather the president M. Acrell. It is on the cause of gout, which he thinks is owing to too great a portion of nutritious juice, not in an acrid or depraved state, but properly fitted, if required to nourish the body. He defines gout to be a ‘febrile disease,

chiefly affecting the joints with an inflammatory pain, attacking at intervals, alternating with disorders of the internal parts, and occurring without an evident cause.' He then endeavours to explain the proximate cause, referring it to a sound state of the stomach, where that organ acts with vigour, producing more chyle than is requisite for the common consumption; or superfluous chyle, if the effete particles are not absorbed. He traces it very correctly to that period of middle age when the balance is on the side of the veins, and shows the connection between gout, and too great fullness of the venous system, as well as a more languid motion of its contents. But we can carry our commendation no farther: in the other parts of his explanation he greatly fails; and as Dr. Duncan with great propriety observes, is opposed in the most important particulars by well established facts. We may, however, remark, that this system, on the whole, explains very consistently the most successful methods of cure, except the effects of bitters, which in time will prevent the gout, and produce atonic diseases in its room.

Dr. Dickson's Observations on Pemphigus, from the first volume of the Transactions of the Irish Academy, noticed in our LXVIIIth volume, follow. An instance of the same disease from the tenth volume of the Medical Journal is also subjoined, in which three grains of calomel occasionally taken over night, with an ounce of Glauber salt in the morning, succeeded. It seems not to have been taken constantly. Since the publication of Dr. Dickson's paper, we have seen three instances of this complaint, or at least of pustules resembling it. They were attended with a low quick pulse; but there was much reason to doubt, whether it could be styled a disorder from a specific fomes. Its appearance was not very distinct, or attended with symptoms so appropriated, as to induce us to allow it a place among the exanthemata. Mr. Cleghorne's History of an Ovarium, in which was found teeth, hair, and bones, from the same volume, follows.

The fourth volume of the Memoirs of the Royal Society of Medicine, published 1786, of which two other volumes have long since appeared, furnishes Dr. Duncan with Observations on the Analysis of the Saliva of a Horse; Reports on the Medical Virtues of the Lizards of the Kingdom of Guatimala; Observations on the Necrosis, and Reflections on the Medical Effects of Nitrous and Vitriolic Æther, by M. Hapel de Chênai, M. M. Carrere D'Aubenton and Mauduyt, M. Bouffelin, and M. de Lavoisier respectively;—Dr. Walker's Enquiry into the Small Pox, the Natural History of Mr. Bruce in the fifth Volume of his Travels; Dr. Joshua Walker's Remarks on the prevalence

prevalence of the *Atrophia Lactantium*, from the second volume of the Medical Memoirs, Dr. Fothergill's Observations on the Effects of the Gum Kino, Mr. Sherwin's Paper on the Effects of Tartar Emetic and Arsenic by external Absorption, Mr. Fearon's Observations on Cancers, from the same collection, Mr. Smellie's Philosophy of Natural History, Dr. Balfour's Treatise on the Putrid, Intestinal, Remitting Fevers; Dr. Baillie's Account of a particular Change of Structure in the human Ovarium, from the seventy-ninth volume of the Philosophical Transactions for 1789; and Dr. Guthrie's Dissertation on the Climate of Russia, from the late Volume of the Edinburgh Transactions, are analysed in their order. Our readers will, we dare say, anticipate us in remarking, that though occasionally too late, Dr. Duncan has provided sufficient variety of very interesting materials for this part of his annual volume. He differs from us a little in his opinion of the importance of some of these works, if his opinion is to be gathered from the attention he has bestowed; but various observations are interspersed of real value, for Dr. Duncan has sometime since stepped out of the confined and laborious path of a mere analyser.

The second section, contains Medical Observations; and these, as usual, are of very unequal value, and we regret greatly that friendship or complaisance should have induced him to insert some of these essays in a volume which we wish to see filled by observations of real value.

The first paper is, however, an exception to this opinion. It is entitled Observations on the Puerperal Fever, more especially as it has of late occurred in the Lying-in Hospital at Dublin, by Dr. Clarke. It contains a short history of puerperal epidemics, with his observations while he superintended the Dublin hospital. The disease consists, in his opinion, in an inflammation of the peritonæum, and admits not of bleeding, except when accidentally combined with some symptoms of peripneumony. Next to the peritonæum, the omentum, the broad ligaments of the uterus, and some parts of the colon are affected with inflammation or gangrene. He has seen the disease formed previous to lying-in, since women have died apparently exhausted by labour, with all the symptoms of appearances, on dissection, of peritonitis. It is an observation of Dr. Clarke, which deserves, perhaps, to be more fully insisted on, that, previous to the appearance of the epidemic, slow recoveries were common. It should, we think, be a rule, that when, in general, the women recover slowly in a lying-in ward, that the whole room and furniture should be white-washed, painted, and cleaned. In the Dublin hospital the fomes seemed to be collected sometimes in one ward and some-

times in another; the infection was local and partial, for in some seasons a particular ward was healthy and others sickly. In private practice, and occasionally in hospitals, it seems to be more generally diffused. The French practice of giving ipecacuanha in the beginning, did not seem to be peculiarly advantageous. Saline purgatives and warm fomentations to the abdomen are, in Dr. Clarke's opinion, the most useful remedies.

Observations on the Influenza, as it lately appeared in the West Indies, by Mr. Chiffholm, follow. It occurred in the island of Granada in 1789, evidently from infection, for, since the peace of 1763, it only appeared twice before, and then in a very inconsiderable degree. The great cold and previous wet weather rendered the inflammatory symptoms very violent, and the disease was dangerous, when combined with peripneumony and anomalous hepatitis. In the last instance, bleeding and mercury were the most successful remedies, and it sometimes happened that the peculiar effects of mercury were conspicuous only after repeated bleedings, without any additional doses of the mercury. In general, the disease yielded to bleeding and a copious perspiration induced by antimonials, occasionally joined with opiates.

'The Case in which remarkable Adhesions of the Intestinal Canal terminated fatally,' related by Dr. Andrew Willison, is only remarkable for the great extent and degree of the adhesions. Yet they seem to have been formed during this disease, which was a violent enteritis.

The 'Singularity of the Fracture in the Cranium,' in the next essay, consisted chiefly in the ossifications shooting inward, like the teeth of a comb, and bringing on symptoms of compressed brain. To this is added a case, where, from a *voluntary* amputation of the penis, the hæmorrhage was soon stopped by a slight compression. We believe, when the hæmorrhage is ever copious in this operation, it arises from the vessels being distended in consequence of disease.

The 'anomalous Case, apparently of the rheumatic Kind,' was singularly violent and rapid. It seems to have been a very acute inflammatory fever, affecting the limbs, and falling on the bladder, producing ischury in a great degree, and ultimately perhaps mortification.

We next meet with an account of angina pectoris cured by arsenic, and we think we remember an instance, in a former volume of the Commentaries, where a disease of this kind was relieved by copper. As it is in the beginning evidently spasmodic, either medicine may occasionally be of service. Mr. Copland informs us also, that camphor, dissolved in oil by means of a volatile salt, has been highly useful in bronchocele,

cele, and other indolent glandular indurations, applied externally.

An aneurism is described in the following essay, as forming a tumour at the scrobiculus cordis. It is supposed to be an aneurism of the aorta descendens, because a pulsation was felt in the tumour. There seems to be no other evidence of the cause; and this we think an inadequate one, for the strong pulsation of the aorta descendens will occasion a seeming pulsation in any neighbouring tumour. We have more than once apprehended such aneurisms, particularly in thin persons, before we were aware of the deception.

The intermittent in the right temple, described by Mr. Davidson, was very obstinate; but those kinds of nervous intermittents can seldom be cured by bark alone, or by calomel. In this instance it seems to have vanished spontaneously. Our author was more successful in curing an indolent tumour in the abdomen, by bark joined with cicuta. The last case is a very singular one. An apparent anasarca of the scrotum, when punctured, discharged a milky fluid and blood. The wound was cured, and the patient continued for some months in his usual state; but after that time grew feverish, his strength sunk, and he died. No particular source of the fluid was discovered on dissection, which we have some reason to suspect was not very carefully conducted; probably on account of the dispatch necessary in private dissections.

The section of Medical News contains an account of the progress made in rebuilding the university of Edinburgh; but 18,000*l.* of at least 60,000 wanted, is only subscribed. We trust the deficiency will be supplied by those who are peculiarly interested in the design. Distant subscriptions will probably come in slowly, since time and other occupations weaken connections of this kind. Some farther account of the irritability of vegetables, as expanded from the more concise sketch in a former volume of the Commentaries, by Dr. Gaghan, follow, illustrated by Dr. Girtanner's system, mentioned in our last volume. Mr. Butt supposes the Angustura bark, to be from the *Brucea dysenterica*; but Dr. Duncan has remarked, in the former part of this volume, that it differs greatly from the bark, as it is found in the specimen growing in the botanic garden of Edinburgh. An account of the use of the phyteuma in syphilis, and of the cure of gout by a stroke of the gymnotus electricus (more probably from wading in the water), follow, from the fourth volume of the History of the Royal Medical Society at Paris. The lives of Dr. Franklin, sir William Watson, and Dr. Cleghorn next occur, together with some account of the intended publications. Prize Questions, the Resignation of Dr. Cullen, Medical Deaths and Promotions,

Promotions, occur as usual, and the volume concludes with a Meteorological Register kept at Edinbrough and London, and a List of New Books. From the Register we need only remark, that the highest degree of the thermometer, from July 1789 to the end of June 1790, was 80°, and the lowest 30°, at Edinbrough. The quantity of rain exceeded thirty-one inches. The mean heat of April 1790 was 46½: the mean heat of the year 45. The range of the barometer was from 30.37 to 27.21.

A complete Dictionary of Music. Containing a full and clear Explanation, divested of Technical Phrases, of all the Words and Terms, English, Italian, &c. made use of in that Science, speculative, practical, and historical. By John Hoyle, Musician. 8vo. 3s. Symonds. 1790.

MR. Hoyle has no doubt, 'but the more the work is known of more essential benefit it will prove.' We perused it therefore in hopes of improvement, hopes at first not sanguine, but soon less eager, ending in disappointment. That we may not be suspected of partial quotation, we shall confine our observations to the first pages.

'Accent, is a certain modulation or warbling of the sounds, either by the voice or instruments, to express a passion. Every bar or measure is divided into accented or unaccented parts; the accented are the principal, being those chiefly intended to move and affect the hearer; the more full and void of discords the harmony is, the less offence to the ear will be given.'

What modulation or warbling of sounds has to do with accent we cannot guess; and we always imagined till now, that discords were struck on the accented parts of a bar.

'Accompaniment, is the instrumental parts playing or moving whilst the voice is singing, to make the music more full: among the moderns, the accompaniment after plays a different part or melody from the song it accompanies.'

On this part we shall make no remarks, for though we have read it repeatedly, we are still at a loss for the meaning.

'It is a prevailing custom amongst many performers, when they come to an adagio (as it is slow, and consequently easy), to throw out favourite passages, which entirely destroy the true harmony and intention of the composer.'

The author intended probably to say 'throw in.'

This Dictionary also informs us that *Allegretto* is quicker than *Allegro*, that *Allemande* is a 'tune with good measure,' that

that all notes above C are in alt, that the 'alto, the upper or counter tenor, is most commonly met with in concertos,' and andante 'has respect chiefly to the thorough bass.' We need not perhaps proceed or inform the reader in what estimation we hold this 'Complete Dictionary of Music!'

Infancy, or the Management of Children: a Didactic Poem, in six Books. The Fifth Edition. By Hugh Downman, M. D. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Robinsons. 1790.

Poems, by Hugh Downman, M. D. The Second Edition, altered and corrected, with several Additions. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Robinsons. 1790.

WE noticed with approbation the progress of the first performance as it came out at separate times in single books; and delivered our sentiments more at large concerning it when it appeared as a whole very lately. We are pleased to find, from the avidity with which it has been since purchased, that the public entertains the same opinion of its merit as ourselves.

The volume of poems, though chiefly a republication of those which Dr. Downman edited in his younger days*, contains many valuable additions. As well as we can recollect, several poems in his former work are omitted, and others have undergone some alteration and improvement. 'The Land of the Muses' was the most considerable: it is here republished in its original state, as written in imitation of Spencer, and another version given of it in modern heroic verse. It is not easy to determine which is most entitled to praise: in a matter of taste opinions must vary, and those who are fond of antiquity, and the obsolete style used by our *ancient bards*, will prefer the original; but those of a more refined, may we say fastidious taste, will decree the palm to the more chaste and elegant version.—The first additional poem is a translation of the *Épicedium* of Ragnar Lodbrach, king of Denmark, a singular and striking monument of the martial and poetic spirit that prevailed among the ancient Scandinavians. The flame of original genius, a wild and savage dignity, pervades the whole performance. The ideas, however, are almost uniformly terrible and horrid: we are often struck with the sublime, but never with the beautiful and the pathetic.—Four Odes follow: 'To Envy;'—'to Content;'—'to Vengeance;' and another without a title prefixed, in which the author, in the style of Gray's Ode, on a distant prospect of Eton College, moralises

* See Crit. Rev. vol. xxvi. p. 191.

on the transient enjoyments and idle pursuits of life. Having recalled to mind with some regret the innocent pleasures of childhood, which, however, during that period past unnoticed and unregarded, he observes,

' 'Tis nature's law : She o'er that time,
Life's dear, delicious, early prime,
Her cloudy vapours casts ;
E'en then the gales of discontent
Within the stripling's bosom pent,
Denounce the future blasts.

' He stoops reluctant to controul,
He longs to reach the distant goal,
And paths untried to scan ;
The master's threat assails his ear,
He dreads the lash, he drops the tear,
His thoughts aspire to man.

' Ah self-deceived ! thy prayer attain—
Lo, Youth and Love united reign !
In idly-froward mood
Still pants thy unexperienced breast ?
It sighs for objects unpossess'd,
Nor heeds the present good.

' Thou hast not felt the ills of life ;
Envy, ingratitude, and strife
Have never pierced thy heart ;
When felt, how wilt thou wish with me
Those genial days again to see,
Which now unprized depart !

' Yet say, which most will reason blame,
Thy thoughts which vivid hopes inflame
Expecting joys to come ?
Or mine, with vain regret o'ercast,
Still fondly looking t'ward the past :
And both, exiled from home ?

' The voice of reason shall excuse,
So shall the free ingenuous Muse ;
We each our parts fulfill.
That thou the present should'st neglect,
And I unsatisfied reflect,
In fate's eternal will.

' Beneath the veil we dare not pry,
Man strives to pierce with aching eye
The mysteries of her reign ;
For weak and bounded is his sight,
And while the total plan is right,
'Twere impious to complain.

' Too soon the vision will decay,
The thin-wove Phantoms cease to play,
A transient form they wear,
Till by some busy demon hurl'd
They sink, and I behold the world,
Awake to all it's care.

' Yes, let me quick the paths retread,
In waving circlets skim the mead,
Or chace the gilded fly;
The feather in the rivulet throw,
Or view the many-coloured bow
With pleasure in my eye.

' And lest me oft the time retrace
When first alive to female grace
My soul confess'd it's charm;
And let me feel th' extatic fire,
And let me to the new desire
Expand by bosom warm.

' And let me trifle while I can;
How trifling at the best is man?
And let me frame the rhyme;
Whether we grieve, or think, or play,
Life is the fragment of a day,
A momentary time.'

A complimentary poem to Mr. Jackson of Exeter, whose musical abilities are generally known and esteemed, succeeds. The concluding stanza is, we think, inferior to the others; the last line but one is certainly exceptionable; yet the composition is on the whole no less elegant than the compliment is just: and we doubt not but the reader will thank us for making an extract of it.

' As long as tender sentiment shall please,
And warm expression captivate the mind,
As long as native beauties, genuine ease
Shall with the nicer few acceptance find:

' While taste shall live in spite of savage art,
And tyrant custom's supercilious sway,
While Genius shall inspire the human heart
By affectation vile untaught to stray:

' So long the Muse, her strains impassion'd freed
By Jackson's magic touch from base controul,
Shall melt with love, cause pity's bosom bleed,
And with redoubled force invade the soul.

' Who through the mazy labyrinth of sound
Hath walk'd before with chaste untainted ear!
Return'd in safety from th' enchanted ground,
Unwarp'd by vanity, uncheck'd by fear?

' 'Tis thine mid harmony's extensive reign
To cull each soft, each energetic tone,
Each note un sullied by the vulgar train,
Which Nature whispers in thy ear alone.

'Tis thine simplicity's much-boasted grace
Truely to feel, to scorn the praise of fools,
Who view with rapture the distorted face,
Strangers to modest sense and all her rules.

' 'Tis thine unbias'd by a transient fame,
Not stupid wonder, but the heart's applause
Nobly to claim, by this t'exalt thy name,
While reason, passion, truth, assert thy cause.'

The remainder consists of odes addressed to different persons from motives of esteem or personal friendship. The first is mentioned as having been sent to Mr. Codrington with the second book of *Infancy*: this gentleman is likewise celebrated in the pro-*emium* to the fourth book. The second ode contains a spirited *encomium* on Mr. Hole's *Arthur*, or *Northern Enchantment*. The third is written in praise of colonel *Simcoe*, who served with much credit in the late American war; and the fourth, of lord *Hood*, who signalised himself in the most brilliant action (that of the 12th of August) during that unfortunate period.

The extracts we have given, without examining the separate merit of those additional poems which compose this volume, will sufficiently speak our opinion, in which we trust we shall not be singular,

A View of Ancient History; including the Progress of Literature and the Fine Arts, Illustrated with a Map of the Ancient World. By William Rutherford, D. D. Vol. II, 8vo. 6s. boards. Murray.

THE first volume of this work * exhibited a distinct View of Ancient History from the earliest Times to the End of the First Persian War, immediately after which the present volume commences. From the splendor of the transactions, the subject is in itself highly interesting; and Dr. Rutherford has increased its effect, by the animated strain of his narrative. He sets out with an account of the second Persian war; de-

scribing, in the same chapter, the character of Themistocles and Aristides, the two most eminent public men of that age; concerning whom he relates the most memorable anecdotes which have been transmitted by history. This recital is followed by the battle of Thermopylæ, the account of which will serve as a specimen of the author's manner, in the description of animated scenes.

• The Spartan king, with his little band of heroic and self-devoted followers, resolved on this occasion to exhibit to the world a memorable example of obedience to the laws of Lycurgus, which prohibited on whatever occasion to desert their post, or to fly from an enemy. The subjects of other states might follow the dictates of prudence or expediency; but the Spartans could only hear and obey the voice of glory, and the call of their country.

• Placed in the post of honour by the general consent of Greece, they chose rather die than desert that station, and they determined therefore, though at the expence of their lives, to confirm the pre-eminence of Sparta, to earn immortal fame, and to give an example of patriotism to the last ages of Greece. Animated by the example of their leader, each Lacedæmonian and Thespian under his command devoted himself to death; but resolved to die in such a manner as should be glorious to himself, and beneficial to his country. When he ordered them to "prepare the last meal of their lives, and to dine like men, who at night should sup with their fathers," they sent up a shout of joy, as if they had been invited to a banquet.

• When Hydarnes, with his detachment of twenty thousand men, had nearly approached to the rear of the Greeks, a chosen band of Persians advanced to the assault in front. To guard the defile, when they must inevitably be surrounded, was no longer an object to Leonidas, and his attendants; but to choose the spot, where, in sacrificing themselves, they might make the greatest havoc among the enemy.

• Conscious of certain death, it was now time to prepare for the last effort of generous despair. Advancing to the widest part of the valley, they attacked the Persians with the most impetuous valour, spread a scene of carnage on all sides, and in the confusion that ensued, many of the undisciplined barbarians were driven into the sea, while numbers were trodden to death by their fellow soldiers. Leonidas fell early in the engagement, at the head of his heroic Spartans. The conflict, however, was continued favourably for the Greeks, till Hydarnes attacked their rear. Collected in themselves, though retiring to return no more, they took post behind the wall of Thermopylæ. The Thebans took this opportunity of expressing their early attachment to the Persians, and with outstretched arms begged mercy of the conquerors. Many
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of them were killed in the act of surrendering themselves; the remainder, being made prisoners, survived only to infamy. The Lacedæmonians and Thespians continued to fight with all the fury of despair, till the wall was broken down and the enemy entered by the breaches. It was no longer possible to resist the weapons of surrounding multitudes; this undaunted band perished to the last man, overwhelmed rather than conquered by the Persian arms.

‘ To the memory of those brave defenders of Greece, a magnificent monument was afterwards erected on the spot where they fell, bearing two inscriptions; one in honour of all those who had fallen on that occasion, importing, that a thousand Greeks had resisted the progress of the Persian army, consisting of millions; the other, to the memory of Leonidas and his three hundred Spartans, expressed in a few simple words by the poet Simonides: “ Tell, stranger, at Sparta, that you wept over the ashes of the three hundred, who devoted themselves to death in obedience to the laws of their country.”

‘ Twenty thousand Persians fell in this engagement, and among the rest the two brothers of Xerxes.

‘ The action at Thermopylæ had serious and decisive effects both upon the Persians and the Greeks. It convinced the Persians of the high spirit and desperate valour of that people with whom they were to engage, and taught them at what a price victory was to be obtained. The conduct of the Greeks on this occasion merits our highest praise. When monarchy has become the general government of Europe; when states are composed of subjects, not of citizens, and war is carried on by mercenary troops, it is difficult for us to conceive the feelings of freemen when their country was in danger, and their liberty at stake. Even the commonwealths which are under our inspection, composed of merchants and manufacturers accustomed to the functions of civil life, give us but an imperfect idea of the martial republics of antiquity, and seldom produce examples of those prodigies of valour which originate from enthusiasm and despair. The day of Thermopylæ announced the last resolution of the Athenians and Spartans, to die free, rather than to live slaves; and taught the great king, that with all the millions of the east, it might be possible to exterminate the Greeks, but it was impossible to subdue them.’

The sixteenth chapter continues the narrative from the battle of Thermopylæ, to the naval victory of Salamis. This is another of the most interesting periods in the Grecian annals, when the Athenians, induced to forsake their beloved city, betook themselves to their ‘ wooden walls,’ and Attica became a prey to the desolation of the Persian invaders. The memorable victory at Salamis, however, restored the fortunes of Greece,

Greece, and spread shame and confusion through the most prodigious host of enemies that ever was assembled.

The recital of the same war occupies likewise the seventeenth chapter, with which it concludes. This period comprises the battle of Plataea, which decided for ever the contest between the Greeks and the Persians, under the command of Mardonius; and on the same day the naval forces of the Greeks obtained a victory in Asia, no less decisive and important, over the remainder of the Persians who had escaped from the engagement at Salamis. The battle of Plataea was fought in the morning, and that of Mycalé in the evening. Our author, speaking of this auspicious day, justly observes, that it was,

‘ A day which humbled the ambition of the Asiatic monarch, and contracted the dimensions of the Persian empire; which delivered Greece from the terrors of tyranny and oppression, and restored the Ionian colonies to liberty and independence; which, by rescuing Europe from the dominion of Asia, and marking the decided superiority of the former to the latter, becomes interesting and important to all succeeding ages.’

The period comprehended in the next chapter, and which elapsed from the conclusion of the Persian to the commencement of the Peloponnesian war, forms a transcendently illustrious æra of national prosperity and renown, and is detailed by the author of the history with that precision which the dignity of the subject demands. In this age of glory, we behold the Greeks not only victorious over their enemies in every quarter of the world, but immortalising the genius and taste of their country, as they had already its valour and patriotism. We shall, however, pass to the next division of the work, where the subject is of a nature peculiarly interesting.

The nineteenth chapter treats of the rise and progress of literature, and the fine arts, in Greece. It is introduced by our author with the following reflections:

‘ The rise of literature forms one of the most curious and interesting articles in the history of man. No distinction is more striking than that which obtains between the necessary arts and those which are called beautiful or fine. Superadded to the senses and powers which operate to self-preservation, there are others of a different kind, which tend only to pleasure. What at first view may appear surprising, the latter are the most important, as well as brilliant; the improvement, embellishment, and pleasure of society, chiefly flow from them, and the character of men and of nations is rested upon the degree of perfection to which they are advanced.’

The Greeks, as our author observes, set the first example
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of perfection in the arts; the specimens of genius which they exhibited fixed the standard of elegant nature; and their early productions still continue models to mankind. It is not uncommon for a nation in the height of prosperity and grandeur to prescribe the modes of taste, and attract the imitation of other countries: such instances are frequent in modern times; but Greece, when divested of her political importance, and when all her republics had bowed to the superior fortune of the Roman arms, still preserved her sovereignty in the sciences and the elegant arts. In the words of our author, 'she exercised a nobler empire than that of arms, civilized her conquerors, and gave law to the human mind.'

It is a remarkable circumstance in the history of literature and the fine arts, that they had their rise chiefly in Ionia; an observation which strongly favours the idea of a peculiar tendency in that delicious climate to exalt the intellectual faculties. On this subject, Dr. Rutherford makes the following remarks:

'A lively sensibility to the works of nature is the first ingredient in the character of the poet or the painter. The various regions of the earth are distinguished by nature by a particular complexion, a boldness of feature, or a gentleness of expression. The western coast of the Asiatic continent is universally acknowledged to be one of the most delicious countries in the world, remarkable for the fertility of its soil, and excelling Greece in the felicity of its fine climate, which was no less pleasing to the senses than enlivening to the imagination. The gay and smiling aspect of a picturesque region, under an unclouded sky, diversified by hills and vallies, intersected by rivers, broken by bays and promontories, and adorned with natural beauties and noble prospects, excites those emotions which give birth to poetry. Alone with nature in her favoured haunts and delightful recesses, men feel with vivacity, and give vent to their feelings in animated language, which is believed to flow from inspiration.'

'The colonies which migrated to Ionia from Athens, after the death of Codrus and the abolition of the royalty, carried along with them the principles of liberty, which at that time distinguished the Athenians, and became general in Greece. While they retained the same ingenuity, the same enthusiasm, and the same poetical and pleasing system of superstition which they derived from their European ancestors, they possessed advantages peculiar to themselves. Harassed by internal dissensions, and torn by the struggle of contending factions for power, Athens continued in poverty and barbarity till the time of Solon; but its colonies in
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the east enjoyed profound peace, and acquired sudden prosperity. From their vicinity to Phrygia and Lydia, the best cultivated and most opulent regions of Lower Asia, they learned the arts of industry and ingenuity ; to dye wool, to work mines of gold, to mould figures in bronze, and to cultivate the fine arts. Availing themselves of their situation, they turned their attention to foreign commerce, which had been neglected by the Phrygians and Lydians. Commanding the mouths of great rivers, and possessing convenient harbours, they soon made such progress in maritime and inland trade as raised several of their cities, particularly Miletus, Colophon, and Phocæa, to wealth and power. In the eighth century before Christ, they had an intercourse with Egypt, and for a length of time monopolized the trade of that country. Thus blessed by the advantages of nature, and enriched by the acquisitions of art, they felt a desire, or found a demand, for new and more refined pleasures, and began to cultivate the elegant arts and amusements which spring from leisure, and minister to luxury.'

Our author afterwards traces the rise and progress of literature and of the fine arts more minutely, delivering a historical account of each. The subject is of a nature extremely interesting to literary enquirers, and it is treated by the historian with suitable attention and judgment.

The three remaining chapters of the work contain respectively the history of the Peloponnesian war ; the period from the conclusion of the Peloponnesian war, to the peace of Antalcidas ; and from the peace of Antalcidas, to the fall of the Theban empire. The whole is written, as the former volume, in such a manner as to engage the reader's attention, who cannot but wish for the continuation of the work.

A Sketch of the Reign of George the Third, from 1780, to the Close of the Year 1790. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Debrett. 1791.

THE last ten years of our present sovereign's reign forms an eventful period in history ; and were the facts not so recent as to be generally well known, the present age might receive from the detail of them, the same impressions of surprise and admiration which they doubtless will excite in posterity. In the present Sketch, however, it cannot be expected, that we should meet with the recital of any events which have not already been communicated to the public ; neither can we look as yet for a satisfactory elucidation of the political causes which produced them. This is a desideratum not to be accomplished till time shall remove the veil that conceals, during the life of the principal actors on the stage of the world, the sources of historical in-

information. The historian of his own times, who draws his materials from the public stock, can recommend himself to attention only by reducing them into an animated narrative, with fidelity and candour, two qualifications which, with all his care, will not be universally allowed him.

Such is the nature of the Sketch now under consideration, that, in reviewing it, nothing more is left for us than to mention the author's design, and the manner in which it is conducted. His intention is to exhibit a view of the extraordinary change produced in the state of this country during the period of which he treats. He begins with a general account of the situation of the European powers in the year 1780; after which he proceeds to that of Great Britain, where the clamour arising from the public misfortune was every day becoming more loud. He thus begins his description of the ministerial phalanx at that time:

‘ The principal figure which here presented itself, was the first minister, lord North, struggling against a host of enemies, and slowly retreating before them, while they pressed forward with loud and repeated clamours. A thousand javelins hung upon his political buckler, the points of which were continually broken and turned aside by his urbanity, his ready and pleasant wit, or his able and ingenious reasonings, when sufficiently stung by the reproaches which were heaped on him, to awaken and rouse his torpid parts. Inur'd to the habits of parliamentary debate, master of all the science of ministerial evasion or defence; though destitute of energy and coercion of character, yet eloquent, mild, persuasive, and blessed with an almost insuperable tranquillity of temper, he patiently saw the storm exhaust itself; and looked round, serene and placid, to that powerful phalanx, which, long accustomed to obey, still closely adhered to him under every circumstance of public distress, and never abandoned him in the hour of necessity. Even the lethargic and soporific qualities of his body, as they frequently prevented him from either hearing or feeling the investives of opposition, in some measure disarmed and blunted their edge; while slumbers, which so often fly the couch of princes, not unusually visited lord North amidst all the din and tumult of the Treasury Bench. Near him sat the American secretary, lord George Germain; whose more irritable nerves, and more communicative or unguarded character, afforded materials and scope for continual attack. Gifted with extraordinary natural endowments, though little cultivated by polite letters, or adorned by science; active, persevering, decisive, and capable of conducting the greatest affairs of state, he was yet pursued by the same fatality which had blasted his early prospects of greatness. Unsuccessful in age upon the
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plains of America, as he had been unfortunate in youth upon those of Germany, he vainly invoked an exhausted nation, and a discontented parliament, to continue a war, which, however just and necessary in its origin, had become odious and ungrateful, from a long series of ill success. Loyal to his sovereign, pertinacious in his favourite measure of subjecting America, and conceiving his own political situation inseparably connected with the final success of that attempt, he adhered inflexibly to it, and regarded its prosecution as a sacred principle, from which no objects could induce him to recede.

After mentioning likewise Messrs. Ellis, Dundas, Rigby, with Thurlow and Wedderburne, now lords Thurlow and Loughborough, as adherents of the minister, he next draws a portrait of the Opposition :

‘ On the other side of the house, says he, Mr. Fox led on the bands of opposition in close and well conducted files, while Mr. Burke charged at the head of his irregular squadrons, and carried terror into the ranks of administration. Dunning, in defiance of nature, destitute almost of organs of articulation, monotonous and disgusting in his tones, ungraceful in his figure, possessing no external advantages, and unadorned by any facitious circumstances of birth and alliance ; yet, under all these impediments, arrested the judgment, charmed the ear, and captivated the imagination, by the stream of his eloquence : though it sometimes flowed through the channels of law, it was always bright, clear, and lucid. Keppel, Conway, Howe, and Barré occupied their respective stations in this formidable and augmenting body, and aided the general attack upon the feeble and dismayed adherents of the minister.’

The subsequent changes in administration are described in a manner equally animated and picturesque ; to the latter of which modes the author seems to have a particular propensity ; for in reciting the catastrophe of Mr. Fox’s East India bill, he describes two caricature drawings, which he tells us were ‘ conceived with exquisite humour, and whose effect can perhaps be compared with nothing in our history, except the song of Lillabullero,’ under James the Second.

In what relates to the transactions of foreign nations, which are alternately introduced into the Sketch, the author has adopted the same descriptive and forcible manner which characterises his account of the domestic scenes ; and in all the later views exhibited of both these objects, the contrast, as might be expected, is strongly in favour of Great Britain. The author seems to catch enthusiasm at the animating situation of public affairs, and is not sparing of magnificent eulogiums on the first minister,

minister, to whose conduct he ascribes them. It is certain that his observations, however panegyrical, are strongly supported by facts, and that he is, therefore, actuated by impartial sentiment, we cannot take upon us to deny. The following extract from the conclusion of the work will best express the state of his mind as a historian.

‘ I am arrived at that period, where the present work must necessarily terminate. I am conscious that it is only an outline; but the events of which I have treated, are not sufficiently removed, to admit of minute enquiry, or profound investigation. Yet, this imperfect production may perhaps serve to light the steps of some future Hume or Gibbon, to whom genius shall delegate the sublime task, of recording and perpetuating the English annals. My object has been only to commemorate the facts and characters, which have made the deepest impression on my memory and understanding, while a spectator of their full effect; and to stamp them with the genuine sentiment which they excited, of approbation or censure. “ *Statui res gestas populi Romani,*” says Sallust, “ *carptim, ut quæque memoria digna videbantur, prescribere; eo magis, quod mihi a spe, metu, partibus reipublicæ, animus liber erat.*”

‘ Whether I may be esteemed altogether exempt from the emotions, disclaimed by the Roman writer, I must leave to those who shall peruse this work, to determine. It is difficult to divest ourselves of the predilections, which almost necessarily arise in our minds, when engaged in the recital or description of scenes, acted in ages and countries the most remote. It would rather imply a degree of apathy, and defect of feeling, than any superiority to common and vulgar prejudice, if I could survey with the same tranquillity, the calamities, which only a few years since, threatened the destruction of England, and the present elevated state of security which we enjoy: or if in relating them, I should allow no portion of enthusiasm to mix with the veneration, always due to historic truth. Gratitude is naturally excited in every generous breast, by private benefits: but the sovereign, or the minister, who are the benefactors of nations, kindle, even in the historian who transmits to future times the events of their government, a venial partiality; nor can the reign of Trajan and Aurelius be written with the same indifference, as we feel in describing the gluttony of Vitellius, or the crimes of Caracalla.’

After what we have already said of this production, and the specimens we have given, it is unnecessary to add, that the Sketch is executed with a bold hand, under the influence of a lively imagination; but, in some places, too highly coloured.

Transactions during the Reign of Queen Anne; from the Union to the Death of that Princess. By Charles Hamilton, Esq. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell. 1790.

THE intention of this work, which is dedicated to the duke of Hamilton, will best appear in an extract or two from the preface.

‘ No period in the British history presents to the eye of the reader such a picture of corruption, venality, unconstitutional influence, court-intrigue, unbounded ambition in favourites, and of extensive abuse of popularity and power, as does the weak, though splendid reign of queen Anne. It is throughout, in a great measure, a scene of artifice and delusion. The sovereign, full of timidity, biassed by an attachment to her own family, which creates in her breast perpetual fear and uneasiness, unadvisedly throws herself into the arms of a crafty and ambitious pair, who, by degrees, gain so absolute an ascendant over her mind, that, at first, they lead her as they happen to be inclined, and, in the end, hold her in the most servile dependence.’

‘ That the authenticity of my materials may not be questioned, I am reluctantly forced to point out the source from which they were drawn, and to give some account of my father, by whom they were bequeathed. He was son of James earl of Arran, afterwards duke of Hamilton, and of lady Barbara, third daughter of Charles II. by the duchess of Cleveland, who gave him birth at Cleveland-house in March, 1691, during that lord’s confinement in the Tower. The queen and the duke of Hamilton, incensed at the discovery of this connection, made the retreat of lady Barbara to the Continent, the principal condition of lord Arran’s release from imprisonment, and from an impending prosecution. This lady accordingly withdrew to the nunnery of Pontoise, where she pined away and died. My father having been reared up at Chifwick by the duchess of Cleveland, was, by lord Arran, on his becoming duke of Hamilton, and marrying the honourable miss Elizabeth Gerard, sent over to France, where the care of his person and education was intrusted to the earl of Middleton, at that time secretary of state to James II.

Brought up in that minister’s family, admitted to an unlimited share of his confidence, privy to a great part of his correspondence, he was held in great consideration at the court of St. Germain, until the fatal catastrophe of the duke of Hamilton in 1712. This cruel circumstance, followed by a train of other disappointments, drove him at length to Swisserland, where he divided his days between the pursuit of alchymy and a friendly intercourse, to the last, with the late earl marshal, who, in 1737, promoted an union between him and Antonietta my mother, a descendant from the well known family of Courtenay.’

Feb. 1791.

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Every reader, the least accustomed to accuracy in historical publications, must perceive that nothing can be more unsatisfactory than this account. Instead of information concerning the nature and number of the manuscript materials, we have only a sacrifice to family pride.

The like imperfection pervades the whole work. We have perused it attentively, but cannot discover the nature of the materials, upon which so much is built. An original MS. letter, or two, is quoted, and 'MS. Anecdotes;' but they are adduced in so careless and inaccurate a manner, that no future historian can venture to rely upon them; nay, no reader can trust the present author for the veracity of his own assertions.

We look upon the Whigs and the Tories with the same indifferent eye as we do upon the Guelfs and Gibellines; and endeavour, as much as possible, to get into the high and commanding tower of impartiality, the distant but distinct prospect from which has the same effect upon proximate objects as upon those which gradually fade into the horizon of time. But our impartiality would be violated if we approved the singular spirit which animates this work. The great duke of Marlborough being, as our author is candid enough to inform us, no friend to James the fourth duke of Hamilton, the hero of the present publication, the boldest calumnies are heaped upon his memory, and upon that of his party, the Whigs. We doubt not that the Whigs were men, and had great faults. In the latter part of queen Anne's reign, in particular, their situation was so embarrassing, and the accession of the house of Hanover so doubtful, that it is no wonder to find their leaders courting both the expectant, and the exiled, House. War we detest; and war, since the balance of power has been established in Europe, we regard as mere insatiation, leading to certain loss and no gain; but when a writer attempts to persuade us that the glorious war carried on by the duke of Marlborough, to prevent Spain from being a province of the House of Bourbon, and to maintain the balance and the liberties of Europe, was a mere trade of avarice, we can only smile. Do we wish to know the effects of that war? let us look on France at present. That war gave the wound, which has since rankled in her vitals; and after a few struggles has overthrown her. The excess, to which that war was carried, will prevent many future wars: and we must recommend to our author the saying of an inveterate enemy of Marlborough, lord Bolingbroke, who, when some one spoke before him of the duke's avarice, answered, 'He was so great a man that I have forgot his faults.'

Having thus put our readers upon their guard with respect

pect to the prevalent prejudice of this work, and we beg the author to believe that we should have done as much if he had erred on the other side, we shall proceed to give some extracts; and shall begin with the character of the duke of Hamilton.

‘ They had at their head the duke of Hamilton, a nobleman, whose untainted principles had withstood the persecutions of the late reign, and every practice of the present. Uniting in his person the unshaken loyalty of the Hamiltons with the undaunted bravery of the Douglasses, he was not to be seduced or intimidated. By birthright first prince of the blood-royal of Scotland, and next in succession to the Scottish throne, after the descendants of James VI. his weight in the country was justly considerable. Twice during the late reign he had been thrown into the Tower, on account of his bold adherence to king James, whose person he would not desert, although he abetted not his principles; and from whom no severity could force him to withdraw his allegiance. The fidelity which he conscientiously thought to have owed to the father, he had transferred unspotted to the son. He made no secret of his attachment to the cause of the excluded prince, or of his correspondence with him. Although he had submitted to the queen’s government, yet he had hitherto uniformly rejected every tender of employment in administration. Of determined personal courage, of an upright and penetrating understanding, he was not to be terrified by dangers, or diverted from his purpose by specious pretences. Steady in his political conduct, warm and sincere in his professions, faithful to his engagements, judicious and clear in his conceptions, manly and persuasive in his expressions, in an uncommon degree graceful in his manner, with an aspect in which native dignity was blended with benevolence, he was endowed by nature with the great requisites to win the hearts, and rule the contending passions of the multitude. Both the country-party and the Jacobites unanimously acknowledged, as their leader, a nobleman of such rare merit and solid talents; and with confidence, they all looked up to him as their natural protector.’

The Memoirs of Scotland, mentioned as authenticating this character, we know nothing of; and this affords a genuine specimen of our author’s ignorant and vague mode of reference.

We are happy to find Mr. H. own that the union of the two kingdoms, which his hero so violently opposed, till he was commanded by the court of St. Germain’s to desist, was ‘ a remarkable event, which, in spite of combined obstacles, has at length diffused happiness and prosperity over the face of this flourishing island.’

In p. 210, the author graciously condescends to leave for a moment the dignity of the historical style, and indulging great virulence, pronounces 'the *fend* Marlborough.'

The following remarkable passage from a letter of Marlborough to the court of St. Germain, published by Mr. Macpherson, and given here, p. 213, deserves to be well known for the just idea of the Whigs and Tories presented in it; and which so many succeeding events have contributed to verify.

"Peace must certainly happen. The people stand in need of tranquillity on both sides; the current of the nation now seconds the views of the minister. But peace and all that has been done favours the cause of the king. God, who rules above, seems visibly to dispose all for the best. But neither Whigs nor Tories can ever be depended upon as parties. Their professions are always different, but their views precisely the same. They both grasp at the possession of power: the prince who gives them most is their greatest favourite. As for me, I have been treated unworthily; but God has blessed me with a great deal of temper and forbearance of mind. I have taken my resolution to be quiet; I have determined to wait my time; but if Harley pushes me farther, he shall know of what metal I am made. As for the king's affairs, occasion only is wanted to my zeal. God Almighty has placed matters in such a train, that he must at any rate succeed. I know perfectly his sister's disposition of mind. She is a very honest person, easily won, and without difficulty swayed. She is extremely cautious, as she is to the last degree subject to fear. At bottom, she has no aversion to her brother's interests; but she is one that must not be frightened. An external force would terrify her, and alienate the minds of the nation. Leave us to ourselves, and all your hopes will be crowned with success."

Speaking of the opposition given by Marlborough's party to the admission of the duke of Hamilton's new English title of Brandon in the house of peers, and which was not allowed till the present reign, our author proceeds thus:

"The motives influencing Marlborough on this occasion, were deep resentment against the duke for his having so largely contributed to his downfall, and an old rooted enmity between them, which the duke, far from ever disguising, had aggravated by the most contemptuous carriage towards him, having ever disdained to hold with him the slightest intercourse. The inveteracy of Marlborough had long lain brooding revenge, slyly inwrought within a veil of obsequiousness, which in this instance enabled him

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(to use his own expression-) "to bring down the duke of Hamilton's pride." Yet, as virulently to hate or despise another person is no commendable trait in an upright character, unless inbred depravity and deep rooted vices had been early discovered to lie rankling in the composition of the abhorred object, upon the principle, that no alliance can subsist between virtue and vice, I am particularly called upon to account for the rise and progress of the duke of Hamilton's aversion and contempt for Marlborough. The former had been early in life, when earl of Arran, much caressed both by Charles II. and James his successor. He was not unqualified for penetrating into the characters of the principal figures composing their courts. He knew that James, while duke of York, having fallen in love with Arabella Churchill, had caused Winston Churchill her father to be knighted; that he had procured for him the lucrative posts of commissioner of the court of claims in Ireland, and eldest comptroller of the board of green cloth; that moreover he had extended his special protection to his three sons. George Churchill, afterwards admiral of the blue, and principal manager of the admiralty for the high admiral, he had originally placed in the navy, and had very early preferred to the command of a ship of war. Charles Churchill, another brother, afterwards lieutenant-general of the British forces, at the same time lieutenant-governor of the Tower, governor of Brussels and of Guernsey, also colonel of the second regiment of guards, had been, by the duke of York, placed in the army, and rapidly advanced to the command of a regiment, along with another brother, John Churchill, his favourite page. So eminently was John distinguished by that prince's singular affection, that he was kept constantly near his person. In his passage to Scotland, in the Gloucester frigate, stranded on the Lemon and Ore in Yarmouth road the 5th of May 1682, the duke of Hamilton certainly knew that the duke of York had shewn greater anxiety for the preservation of John Churchill's life than for his own, and had made him first step into his barge, before he would go in himself: that he had saved him in preference to his own brother-in-law the honourable Mr. Hyde, who had unfortunately perished in the frigate. A few months after, he had seen this John Churchill, at the pressing instance of the duke of York, raised to the dignity of Peerage, by the title of lord Churchill of Eyemouth in the county of Berwick in Scotland, made a general officer, and intrusted with the command of the first regiment of dragoons. On James's accession, he had seen lord Churchill appointed ambassador to the court of France, named one of the lords of the bed-chamber, created an English peer by the title of baron Sandridge in Hertfordshire, further complimented with the command of the third troop of life-guards,

and his wife appointed first lady of the bed-chamber to the princess of Denmark. He had likewise, with horror, seen this same lord Churchill heading a plot on the 17th of November, 1688, for seizing James, and delivering his person into the hands of the prince of Orange. He was well apprised, that on a debate among the conspirators about the modes of effecting this design, lord Churchill, as a return for wealth and honours lavished on himself and his obscure family, in return for the preservation of his own life, had undertaken to execute the traitorous deed, and, in case of resistance, had even bound himself to slay this very sovereign, his own and family's kind benefactor. He had seen him, prowling for his prey, repair to Salisbury. He had happily succeeded to defeat his black purpose; and, in his disappointment, he had seen him, casting off the mask, basely desert his bounteous prince. He had been personally much wounded in his feelings, by his having seduced away his own bosom friend the duke of Grafton. He had witnessed another atrocious instance of his depravity, in his spiriting up his wily consort to rob the distracted monarch of his beloved daughter, by conveying her to Northampton, far from the scene of desolation, and precluding her from administering comfort to a desponding parent in the height of his affliction. He had witnessed the pungent grief of the forsaken prince; had heard his doleful exclamations, and had seen the royal cheek moistened with tears, on receiving the cruel intelligence of his daughter's flight. Twice, at his wicked instigation, had he himself suffered long and painful imprisonments. From that time the duke of Hamilton had pursued Marlborough's insidious tracks. He had marked the progressive strides of his ambition to attain an uncontrouled power, and establish in the land an odious oligarchy. He had darted forth, and had rescued both his sovereign and his country out of the monster's fangs. Had he not cause to detest him? Was he rash or unfounded in his opinion of that character? From a plant so tainted, could any healing juices flow? This hideous picture will not appear overcharged, on revising the former part, or perusing the sequel of this work. Not a syllable is here set down but what has been variously recorded. I have not added to, or diminished from a subject, handed down to posterity under different shapes. I have been cautious and faithful in retracing the outlines, and scrupulously have confined myself to the portraying of features already too well known. The only merit by me claimed, is to have hung it out in full view, that all future parricides of their country, should any monsters so depraved again exist, may behold and tremble.

The plot agitated between prince Eugene, when in London,

don, in the year 1712, and Marlborough, we shall present in the author's own words ; and *fides sit penes autorem*.

‘ In this prince’s interview with Marlborough, the delay in his appearance was grievously complained of. “ Had you arrived a month before,” said Marlborough to him, “ my friends had a majority ; we might easily have sent two or three of the opposite party to the Tower ; their vacant places might have been filled up with men disposed to continue the war. Whereas now, the face of affairs is changed ; twelve new peers have been created, and the Scottish ones are arrived. Extremities must either be recurred to, or the business altogether dropped. That silly woman (meaning the queen) is in the hands of three or four persons, who govern her at pleasure, and whom force alone can remove. You should, in these circumstances, cultivate the good opinion of the minister, and induce the commons to grant plentiful supplies. *My whole party* shall attend to improve circumstances as they fall in ”

‘ This dilatory mode of proceeding being ill relished by the boisterous prince, Marlborough proposed, in the mean while, to let loose bands of ruffians in the night upon the citizens, in order to excite mobs, “ in which,” said he, “ we may easily find means to rid ourselves of those who stand in our way.” “ No,” said the prince, who disliked half measures ; “ we must, during the night, set fire to the city in various places, particularly to the palace of St. James’s, the queen’s residence. You should, for the purpose, select the night, when an officer upon whom you can depend is on duty. During the conflagration, you should appear in arms, possess yourself of the Tower, the Bank, and the Exchequer ; next march to St. James’s, seize the queen, and force her to dissolve the parliament.” This scheme was not altogether rejected ; Marlborough pondered it, and wished to consult his friends on the subject. It was accordingly submitted to my lords Somers, Cowper, and Halifax. Upon the first blush of the business, these declined giving their opinion ; but when pressed to it, they declared themselves for measures less pregnant with open violence. “ Let us,” said they, “ preserve a colour of right on our side, and keep within a legal fence. Let Bothmar, in the elector’s name, send in a second memorial, still more pointed and peremptory than the last.” The baron, however, excused himself from taking so bold a step, without express orders from his master.’

THE following extract of a letter from the duke of Hamilton to the earl of Middleton, dated the 11th of January 1712, deserves notice :

‘ The possession of the crown has never been the object of

the queen's wishes, nor does she consider it as her property. She looks upon it as a deposit placed in her hands, for which she thinks herself accountable. The prince's misfortunes affect her sensibly; she laments that they have been brought upon him by imbibing tenets repugnant to her people. For my part, I am hurt to see Jacobite lords siding with Marlborough. The sight is odious, and gives offence to the queen. What can you mean by opposing her views? Are you not yet satisfied about the man's fallacy? It is time you should open your eyes, and cease to flatter yourselves, or suffer yourselves to be amused with vain hopes. The country will never receive a king from France, nor will the English suffer themselves to be governed by a Roman Catholic. I would rejoice to see the prince one day restored; but I declare against having any concern in civil wars. To be plain, you should lose no time in taking him away from France, and not wait till you be compelled by a public or private article in the treaty. Go with him to a Protestant country, and marry him, as soon as possible, to a Protestant. I wish you were safe in Sweden.'

At a time when the town is alarmed with *monsters*, the following account of an old race of *monsters*, mentioned in the Spectator, may amuse the reader. The 'prince,' mentioned in the first sentence is Eugene, the Eugenio of sir Roger de Coverly; but the accusation we must leave to the author's veracity.

Furious with disappointment, the enraged prince vowed to wreak his vengeance on the ministers. At the head of a list of devoted victims were placed lord Oxford, secretary St. John, and lord keeper Harcourt. Assassins were associated under the appellation of Mohawks, for the purpose of executing his sanguinary mandates. To familiarise themselves with deeds of blood, barbarities were by them wantonly practised during the night on the peaceable citizens. These ferocious banditti, with naked swords and brandished daggers, sallied forth in the dark, and filled the streets with horror and dismay, pinking (their cant word for stabbing) such as they deemed their enemies. A chairman, with one of his poles, beat out the brains of a foreigner of the prince's retinue, said to be his near relation, who belonged to that abominable association. As preparations were making to celebrate the birth-day of a beloved sovereign, intelligence was received, that, on that day, the court was destined to be made the theatre of meditated slaughter. A band of Mohawks were to sally forth from a house adjoining the palace, and, among others, were to put to death lord Oxford, Mr. St. John, and the lord keeper. Instead of the nobles and other subjects being ad-
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mitted to lay their annual tribute of loyalty at the feet of their sovereign, the gates of St. James's, to defeat the hellish plot, were, on the 17th of February, kept mournfully shut up. The guards were doubled, and troops of horse stationed in the principal squares. By every expedient which prudence suggested, the dark designs were counteracted. A detachment was ordered to attend the steps of the prince of Savoy, less to protect his person than to rescue the threatened victims from his violence. The lord treasurer took refuge within the palace, where his presence was moreover become requisite to support the sinking spirits of a terrified queen, in hourly dread of assassins. Mr. St. John and the lord keeper shut themselves up in their respective houses, not daring to venture out. To overawe the desperate violators of the public safety, a proclamation was issued, promising a reward of 100*l.* for the discovery of any *Moiawk*. By the adoption of these vigilant measures, much bloodshed was averted. Still, while this dangerous visitor remained in the kingdom, all protection was held precarious. Repeated messages were, from time to time, sent to acquaint him that the yacht, to transport him to the continent, was in readiness to sail. Under various pretensions he delayed his departure, loth to quit the prey whom he had marked out for destruction. At length it was resolved, in council, to compel him to depart. Apprised of this resolution, he reluctantly prevented his disgrace; and, on the 17th of March, delivered the queen and her subjects from their well-grounded apprehension, by embarking at Greenwich.

One would imagine from the careless, and gentlemanly, quotation at the end of this paragraph, that bishop Burnet avouched the foundation of the Mohawks by prince Eugene. But as justly, gentle reader, mightest thou quote bishop Watson for the institution of the *monsters* by Charles Fox.

Here is an anecdote of the year 1712.

• Sensibly grateful for the judicious advice of the duke, the excluded prince was moreover preparing to leave France, in conformity to it, when, early in the spring, both he and the sister whom he had in France were seized with the small-pox. The symptoms of the disorder upon both were at first equally violent; but the princess only yielded to the peculiar virulence of the infection. The prince having recovered, as soon as he found himself able to bear the fatigue of a carriage, quitted St. Germain, attended by lord Middleton, his faithful Mentor, and a clergyman of the church of England. With a small train of servants, composed entirely of Protestants, he set off for the north of Europe. He had not proceeded far, when lord Middleton received authentic advice, that their steps were watched, and that dangers,

of which they were not aware, awaited them on their leaving the dominions of France. This intelligence forced them to stop at Chaalons sur Marne, about one hundred and twenty miles from Paris, and to deviate from their original plan. From that town an exprefs was dispatched to the duke of Lorraine, to demand a temporary asylum in his dominions, under the joint safe-conduct of the emperor and of that prince. As soon as an answer was received from Vienna, the duke of Lorraine transmitted the required passports, with the most cordial invitation to the Pretender, who in consequence established his residence at Bar le Duc*.

The account of the death of duke Hamilton is the most curious and interesting part of the work; but our limits will not permit us to insert it.

In p. 282, 283, is the following *hint* concerning the duke of Marlborough's reception at Antwerp, which we confess, we do not understand.

'The public resentment against him was depicted on every surrounding countenance, when an injured youth, whom he had barbarously bereft of the tenderest of parents, and of the brightest prospect, made his unexpected appearance amongst the most conspicuous citizens, thundered *murder* in his ear, and defied him to single combat. Confounded at this summons, the dastardly veteran shrunk back in silence; he could not be provoked to enter the lists of honour.'

These sentences from p. 288, and 309, shew our author's principles; but it is the first time that we have heard of the *steadiness* of Harley †, or of the treachery of Somers and Cowper.

'To the steady perseverance of lord Oxford in times the most difficult, we owe the succession in the Protestant line, we owe the blessings dispensed over a happy land by the beloved prince now wielding the British sceptre, together with the cheering prospect of their stability in his numerous and illustrious progeny.'

'For some time past I have designedly avoided distinguishing the two great parties dividing the nation, by any other appellations than those of the court and opposition parties: for, seeing a set of men, swayed by self interest, under the guidance of Marlborough, Godolphin, Somers, Cowper, Halifax, Wharton, and

* The above circumstance was communicated to me by my father, who was himself brought up a Protestant, and whose remains lie inhumed in the inclosure for burying British Protestants, at Montmatre, near Paris.

† In p. 319, we are told that Harley's principles had ever been those of Whiggism.

others, adopting, with the name of Whigs, measures evidently tending to ruin the country; maintaining principles throughout hostile to the constitution; bent on prosecuting a destructive war, portending slavery to the land; rashly planning schemes for the introduction of foreign troops into the kingdom, and internally fomenting civil discord; I am free to confess, that I have been staggered, and have found the greatest repugnance to call such men Whigs.

The style of Mr. H. is often objectionable. P. 2. 'blazing towers.' P. 11. 'Inattention to the *wailings* of so large a portion of his suffering subjects.' P. 118. 'To the *cognisance* of many.' P. 124. 'A pinching dearth.' P. 222. 'The inveteracy of Marlborough had long lain brooding revenge slyly inwrapt within a veil of obsequiousness.' P. 251. 'endearing reign', &c. &c.

Our author's mode of quotation has already been reprobated, but another example or two shall be given. P. 149. 'I appeal to all the secret anecdotes of this reign.' P. 184. 'I appeal . . . to all the publications of that time.' What a *cloud* of witnesses!

Upon the whole, we believe that this work will be of little use to any future historian, however partial he may be; and it is to be wished that Mr. Hamilton had rather published what papers he has, in their own terms, than have wasted his time in such an erroneous narration.

We must remark, in concluding, that by the labours of several modern compilers, we have been overwhelmed with Tory publications of original papers: and, as our maxim is *audi alteram partem*, we are surprised that the great Whig families have not patronised some man of abilities, in exploring the same or other repositories; and in publishing papers upon the other side: for we are slow in believing that the Whigs were the only knaves.

An History of the Christian Church, from the earliest Periods to the Present Time. 2 Vols. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Kearneys. 1790.

OF all branches of knowledge there is perhaps none in which the present age is more deficient than in that which concerns the history of our religion. The province indeed of ecclesiastical history (important as it is) has, almost without exception, been confined to writers of the most plodding class, and the readers of the vast volumes in which it is contained have hitherto been chiefly of the clerical order: immense numbers there are, even of the clergy themselves, who have been almost disheartened from attempting the formidable task.

It is some commendation of any work to say that it is the first popular treatise on the subject, the first attempt to render a science interesting and intelligible to general readers.

These observations will in a great degree be found applicable to the volumes which are now before us. They are not indeed destitute of faults, but these faults are by no means such as to affect their general utility. The plan and arrangement which the editor, Dr. Gregory, has adopted, is well calculated for perspicuity and easiness of reference. The work is divided according to centuries, and each century is subdivided into four chapters: the first chapter exhibits the general State of the Church in each century; the second contains an account of Ecclesiastical Government, Discipline, Rites, and Ceremonies; the third is a History of the Rise and Progress of different Sects; and the concluding chapter consists of a pretty extensive View of the State of Literature and the most eminent Authors. To each chapter there is prefixed a very full account of its contents, and there is (what we always approve and recommend) a very copious index. The events are related in a clear and lively manner, and the style is easy and agreeable; though we have observed some inaccuracies which, however, are not of sufficient magnitude to require a particular statement.

As we lately considered this subject extensively in our review of Dr. Priestley's History, we shall add only one or two specimens.

The first passage which we shall transcribe is a curious history of the monkish superstition:

‘ Another branch of superstition which fatally increased was monkery, the actual establishment of which is to be dated from the fourth century. There were, indeed, several solitaries who, in the preceding ages, had sequestered themselves from the employments of social life; but the Egyptian Anthony, already mentioned, appears to have been the first who induced any considerable number to associate with him in the monastic state. Numbers, seized by a fanatical spirit, voluntarily inflicted upon themselves the severest sufferings, and were content to be deprived of every earthly good. In this solitary state, like their leader, the illiterate Anthony, they rejected learning as useless, if not pernicious, and professed to be solely occupied in silence, meditation, and prayer. When, however, they were formed into regular societies, they employed some part of their time in study. Their melancholy modes of life prepared and qualified them for all the vagaries of a heated imagination: they had prophetic dreams, saw visions, conversed with the different inhabitants of the invisible world, and many closed a life of madness in despair. The emperor Constantine

time contributed greatly to the respect paid to this state, by his attachment to those who devoted themselves to divine philosophy, or monkery. Considerable numbers of the softer sex forsook their elegant abodes, and the endearments of domestic life, to dwell in caves and deserts. Amongst these, Paula, a matron, descended from one of the most illustrious families at Rome, with her daughter Eulalia, rent asunder every delicate domestic tie; and, forsaking her home, her country, and her weeping offspring, she visited Jerome in Palestine, accompanied him in his visit to Epiphanius at Cyprus, and went to Paulinus at Antioch. Egypt was the great theatre for monastic action; and, at the close of the fourth century, it was computed that 27,000 monks and nuns were to be found in that country. As neither opulence nor talents were required from these solitary devotees, monkery offered an agreeable asylum to the indolent and illiterate, who, if their pretensions to austerity were sufficiently fervent, were at once elevated into stations of peculiar honour and respectability. The conduct of the monks was agreeable to the different motives of religion, fanaticism, or hypocrisy, from which they had entered into that state. Many of them were pious, modest, disinterested and compassionate; some gloomy, austere and censorious; and others artfully obtained a considerable part of that property, the renunciation of which it was their principal employment to inculcate.

‘ The monks were divided into different orders, according to the different modes of life which they were disposed to adopt. The Coenobites were associated under a governor, and dwelt in fixed habitations. The Eremites solitarily resided in deserts, caves, or holes in the earth. The Anachorites wildly wandered in the most sequestered retreats, supporting life by the spontaneous productions of the earth, without any settled places of abode. The Sarabaites were the venders of pretended relics, and the performers of fictitious miracles. All these orders originally included, equally, both the laity and clergy; but the increasing respect paid to these pretensions of extraordinary sanctity, occasioned some of the best benefices in the church to be offered to the monks, and in time the greater number of them were engaged in the immediate service of the church.’

Of the early English writers of the seventeenth century, Dr. Gregory expresses himself as follows:

‘ The mere catalogue of English writers who excelled in the department of theology during the seventeenth century, would exceed the limits of this chapter. From the reign of Henry VIII. to that of William III. every branch of literature, and the study of the Greek language in particular, was cultivated in England with

with unrenitting assiduity. The sublime speculations of Plato, as well as of the later Platonists, were adduced to the illustration of the truths of the Gospel by a succession of divines, who for solidity of judgment and extent of erudition have scarcely been equalled. The unfortunate and mistaken Laud was possessed of one quality which almost atones for his many errors; he was a warm and active patron of learning and genius: such indeed was his respect for talents, that even the memorable John Hales, whose principles were in many respects diametrically opposite to his own, was not exempted from his patronage.

The names of Usher and of Hall are familiar to most readers. The former was primate of Ireland during the dreadful rebellion in that country, and was obliged to save his life by flight. He is generally esteemed as a man of equal integrity and candour; and his fame for erudition was such, that after his retirement from the church, the university of Leyden made him an honorary professor, and cardinal Richlieu sent him his picture, with liberal offers and free toleration, if he would make France the place of his residence. Besides his *Annals* and other treatises, he made a collection of the epistles of the primitive fathers. Bishop Hall was a man of learning, moderation, and piety; his character was so high among the members of the reformed churches, that he was appointed, in 1618, to preach a Latin sermon before the synod of Dort, and was presented by the states with a gold medal.

But the most elegant scholar, and the most useful writer of this period was Dr. Jeremy Taylor, he was the son of a barber at Cambridge, and was introduced to public notice by archbishop Laud. During the depression of the royal party, he was reduced to great indigence and distress; but at the restoration, was rewarded with the bishoprick of Downe and Connor. His writings consist for the most part of practical treatises of piety; and while they interest and entertain the learned by the keenness of remark, the general knowledge of the human heart, and the classical allusions with which they abound, they are still more extensively useful in affording comfort and instruction to the plain and unlettered Christian. The style is easy and harmonious, and every sentence contains some striking sentiment or observation. The late Dr. Johnson frequently made a present of his *Holy Living and Dying* even to young persons; and whoever will compare the sermons, which he has written, with bishop Taylor's, will scarcely fail to perceive that Dr. Johnson has made him his model, at least in that department of literature. Bishop Taylor was one of the first of those who are termed the Platonic divines in England.

The notes of Dr. Gregory are lively and entertaining, though in some of them he departs from his usual liberality: his authorities are in general respectable.—On the whole, we think
this

this work will be found, in general, pleasing and particularly useful to the two descriptions of persons for whom it was professedly designed, viz. those who have neither leisure nor inclination to turn over a number of bulky volumes, and the junior part of the clerical profession: since we cordially agree with our author, that 'to be ignorant of the rise, progress, establishment, corruption, and reformation of the religion we profess, is not only unpleasant but disgraceful.'

An Answer to Mr. George Dixon, late Commander of the Queen Charlotte, in the Service of Messrs. Etches and Company. By John Meares, Esq. 4to. 2s. Walter. 1791.

WHEN we engaged in this dispute, we expressly declared that we should overlook every personal remark; nor would we fill our page with any thing in the controversy not connected with science. Our account, therefore, of Mr. Meares' Answer must be short; for under the influence of perhaps a momentary resentment, his pen seems to have been dipped in the bitterest gall.

At a time when we were almost involved in a dangerous and expensive war, it was of consequence to enquire, whether the apparent object was of sufficient importance to render this step a political one. The value of the fur-trade was exaggerated by some authors and depreciated by others. We could not avoid observing that the prospect was not very favourable, but it seems that part of the disadvantage was owing to the conduct of the owners in the management of the sale, and that skins which ought to have averaged from eighty to ninety dollars each, were sold for little more than twenty. This does not rest on Mr. Meares' authority only; it is mentioned incidentally by captain Portlock.

The first fact of importance to geography in the Answer is, our author's reply to the observations of captain Dixon respecting Cook's River. We shall transcribe it.

I now come to that part of your publication which mentions Cook's River, and its probable communications with the southernmost part of Baffin's Bay, or the northernmost part of Hudson's Bay. I find no data in captain Cook's voyage to determine the non-existence of a passage. There is no declaration from him that militates against the navigation of a ship beyond the Narrows, where we know there is sufficient depth for a whale. But this is not absolutely the point. The place in which the *Iphigenia* anchored was in lat. $59^{\circ} 58'$, and her boat went as far as lat. $60^{\circ} 42'$, which, indeed, was not so high by many miles as the survey of Mr. Bligh: though, if I mistake not, there were several persons on board the *Discovery*, who retained their opinions in

in favour of a passage, independent of the surveys made by the boats of both ships. You, however, with your usual eagerness and ignorance, *take possession of the shoal* placed above the Narrows, in order to form a barrier against all further navigation up the river: but to dispossess you at once of your important situation, *I must inform you, that ships can navigate on each side this formidable shoal.* No one considers the character and abilities of captain Cook with more veneration than myself; nevertheless, I am free to observe, that there are those *who have taken the liberty* of correcting the surveys of the very parts which were explored by him. The Russians, indeed, who in their galliots have navigated Cook's River much higher than any European vessel, consider it, in reality, to be a bay, filled with fragments of islands, whose channels have been erroneously taken for rivers;—nor does it appear that a single river has been discovered by any of the navigators on the American coast. It is, in my opinion, by no means improbable, that the sea seen behind Nootka, will be hereafter found to extend to the northward as far as Cook's River. But this is mere conjecture; and, in my Observations on the North West Passage, I argue only on the probability of its existence,—and leave my reasonings, such as they are, on the subject, to the candid investigations of inquisitive and discerning men.'

'In short, sir, if you will peruse the voyages of captain Cook with a little more attention than you appear to have bestowed upon them, you will add another discovery to those you have already made,—that the great Navigator did not give over his survey of the river, called after his name, from impediments, but opinion; and I defy you to produce, or even name any one who navigated Cook's River till he could navigate it no further. But, after all, though captain Cook found the rise and fall of its tides to be very considerable, I am disposed to believe, that if a passage should hereafter be discovered, it will prove to be in a more southerly direction.'

The difference in the position of the Hyperborean Sea is accounted for in the same way as we explained it in our last Number, p. 86. The repetition of Cape Mendocino and de Mendozino is also explained very satisfactorily; and Mr. Meares triumphs a little on the typographical error of 37 and 39 for 47 and 49. In p. 86 of our last Number, the error is by mistake styled 'topographical,' a mistake easily made by the compositor on a *topographical* subject. The longitude of the coast is laid down, it seems, from captain Douglas, who is said to have fixed these parts by various lunar observations; but an object of such importance ought certainly to be explained more fully.

The other little observations which we mentioned are slightly answered by assertions—*Quod verbo dicitur verbo negare fat est*, seems to be the axiom of Mr. Meares; and as between the words of each we scarcely know how to *steer*; we shall 'bring to' and 'drop our anchor.'

The Shakspeare Gallery. A Poem. By Mr. Jerningham. 4to. 2s. Robson. 1791.

MR. Jerningham, though a respectable veteran in the Muses' corps, sometimes falls into errors scarcely excusable in a raw recruit. The *βαθυ αερα* of Homer, and Gray's 'azure depth of air,' will not vindicate the last lines of our quotation, which alludes to a visionary scene in Ezekiel, chap. 8.

'Then, with strong hand, he grasp'd his silver hair,
And swift convey'd him thro' the yielding air,
Along th' unwinged region of the sky,
The dread, mysterious, *deep abyss on high*.'

The injudicious expansion of the idea makes what was sublime in the former writers appear tumid and absurd in the present. Mr. Jerningham's style is, however, in general, neat and spirited. His plan is not to pass any judgment upon the pictures that are now exhibited in the Gallery, but to point out new subjects for future exhibitions. They are as follow: Juliet, as just awakened from the sleep into which the potion given by Friar Laurence had thrown her—Jachimo in Imogen's chamber—Viola, with the distant view of a monument, by the side of which stand the images of Pity and Patience—Miranda in the Tempest, beholding the vessel dashed against a rock, and 'hurrying to the watry grave.' These images do not agree with Shakspeare, unless we suppose Miranda's eyes to have been deceived by magic illusions. Prospero, in the same play, or rather subsequent to it, abjuring 'his necromantic power.' But placing 'the potent wand beneath his foot,' and introducing his book of magic as

'With dust o'erspread, and to neglect consign'd,'
does not accord with the original, where he says,

———— 'I'll break my staff,
Bury it certain fathoms in the earth;
And deeper than did ever plummet sound
I'll drown my book.'——

Ariel is next recommended to the artist; and Anthonio as suggesting to Sebastian the murder of his brother Alonzo—

Cleopatra encouraging her lover (see Anthony and Cleopatra, act i. scene 3.) to attack his enemies—Macbeth, whilst ‘the warning clock strikes one,’ contemplating ‘the air-born dagger.’ Brutus and Cassius in the third scene, act the fourth, of Julius Cæsar—Cassandra, in the third scene, act the fifth, of Troilus and Cressida, where she ‘*prolixly dwells*’ (is that a proper word?) on her brother’s death—Expectation preparing ‘a sword-like instrument wreathed with coronets and chaplets for Henry and his faithful train.’—Constance and Pandolph, act the third, scene the fourth of king John—The conjuring scene in the second part of Henry the Sixth.—The description given of Edward the Third, act the first, scene the second of Henry the Fifth, beholding his son with ‘mingled fear and wonder.’ But this does not agree with the historic account of his behaviour at that time; nor that of Shakspeare’s, who says ‘he stood smiling,’ and as he does not belong to any of his dramatis personæ, might as well have been omitted.—Cardinal Wolsey and Henry the Eighth in act the third, scene the second of that play.—Lady Macbeth, when struck with transient remorse at Duncan’s resembling her father as he slept:

——— ‘The fiend relents,
Her alter’d mien a *sickly smile* presents.’

This ‘sickly smile’ does not strike us as consonant to Nature. The MUSE of fire, see the prologue to Henry the Fifth, ‘ascending the heaven of invention;’ and the scene between Orlando and Adam in the second act of *As you like it*, are the last subjects particularly recommended to the artist’s notice, and we have no objection to them; but a hundred others, at least equally striking, might with the greatest ease be pointed out. Some high compliments to sir Joshua Reynolds, and the honourable Ann Damer, for her basso-relievo of Coriolanus, nearly fill up the remainder of this poem. As a specimen, we shall give the description of Juliet just waking from her trance; we could wish the word *clos’d*, which gives the idea of her being immured, or hid from sight, had been altered, but we know no passage on the whole more justly picturesque.

‘ If time shou’d e’er obliterate the gold
Of Shakspeare’s language, cast in Vigor’s mould,
Here shall, inyested in their various guise,
The throng of his departed forms arise!
The splendid forms his mind luxuriant drew,
The bold creations he held forth to view,
As from their grave shall burst the num’rous host,
And on these walls a new existence boast.

Here

Here shall be seen, in all its charms array'd,
 Th' impressive figure of Verona's maid :
 Clos'd in the dreary vault where sleep the dead,
 Wrapp'd in the night-dress of the fun'ral bed,
 She breaks abruptly from her iron trance,
 And sends around a terror-rolling glance :
 A mournful, solitary lamp shall throw
 A sickly glimm'ring o'er the house of woe,
 And shall the wretched Paris give to view,
 Stretch'd on the ground, with mien of ghastly hue :
 Then shall a deeper spectacle display,
 And hang o'er Romeo with reluctant ray,
 Disclosing his wan lips, devoid of breath,
 And faint-ros'd cheek, still beautiful in death :
 Then shall the beam, with weaken'd effort, shed
 A fading glory on the Friar's head.'

The solitary taper recalls the affecting night-scene in the story of Le Roche in the Mirror, and which probably suggested some ideas in the present performance.

The Indians, a Tragedy. Performed at the Theatre-Royal, Richmond. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly. 1790.

THE incidents in this Tragedy are supposed to have taken place in the vicinity of an Indian village near the Lake Huron in North America: they are romantic and wild, but pleasingly interesting; and indeed several circumstances that at first view appear unnatural, will be found, upon a close examination, consistent with the accounts given by travellers of this untutored people, whose general character is thus delineated; and we believe, on the whole, not unaptly, by one of their sachems in the present performance.

' They are indeed too vehement. They feel
 Too ardently: too ardently resent
 The sufferings of their brethren. Yet their wrath
 Is like the rushing of a mountain blast,
 Sudden but soon appeas'd. I trust they know not
 The hate that rankles in a vengeful breast.'

However the position in the last lines may be questioned, we shall take upon us to assert that more striking marks of originality are to be found in the present publication, considered as a theatrical performance, than in any which for several years past have come under our inspection. The diction is in general chaste and dramatic; free from affected finery and tumid declamation; yet it must be allowed that some passages are too

prosaic, and that a few others are marked with tautology.
 'Yell with horrid howling,' 'arrogating pride,' 'insidious craft,'
 'vain and arrogant presumption,' and to be free

'From prideful arrogance and vain conceit,'

bears at least a strong resemblance to it.—It is not fair to point out defects only in a performance of merit: we shall, therefore, close our article with a short quotation; the appropriated scenery and characteristic manners which it exhibits, will, we are convinced, afford amusement to the reader of taste, who should be informed that Yerdal is an unsuccessful lover of the heroine's, and Neidan an Indian sorcerer.

'Yerdal and Indian meeting.'

'Indian. I have obey'd thee. Neidan comes anon:
 But seems in wild disorder.

'Yerdal. How! disorder?

'Indian. Amid a dreary dell, where scatter'd trees,
 Scath'd by the livid lightning, spread their bare
 And half burnt branches, his dishevel'd locks
 Sigh'd to the passing breeze. And muttering accents
 Uncouth, and incoherent, he appear'd
 As if he held strange parley with th' unseen
 And shrieking spirits of the night. He comes. [*Exit.*

'Enter Neidan.'

'Neidan. Yerdal, be wary. Danger like a snake
 Of fascinating eye, and swell'd with poison
 Lies in thy path. Daemons and fiends conspire
 To work thy ruin.

'Yerdal. Let not terror move thee
 To mar my purpose.

'Neidan. Fiery spirits glare
 Athwart the wild. Howlings and shrieks of woe.
 And voices more than mortal in mid-air
 Threaten events of most tremendous issue.

'Yerdal. The fictions of thy fear.

'Neidan. Even now the moon
 Labour'd with awful jeopardy in heaven.
 Scarce had she risen in lucid robe array'd
 And pour'd upon the grove a flood of light
 When a foul monster, like a dragon, spread
 O'er half the welkin, and approach'd with wide
 Voracious jaw to swallow her reluctant
 And struggling with his fury. Darkness then
 Ensu'd, and then a dreary blast that froze
 My very heart with dread.

'Yerdal.'

‘ Yerdal. I too beheld
 The fancied conflict. But the lucid orb
 Burst through the vapour : and even now ascends
 Unclouded in serene and silent state.
 Away then with thy omens.’

We are, on the whole, highly pleased with this Tragedy, which deserves to have been printed on much better paper than the author or publisher has thought proper to afford it.

Seven Prophetical Periods; or, a View of the different Prophetical Periods mentioned by Daniel and St. John; wherein the Events that have happened under each Period, are briefly stated from History, and compared with the Predictions. By the Author of Speculum Britannicum. 4to. 18s. Boards. Robinsons. 1790.

THE endeavours of the learned to explain and exemplify the numerous texts dispersed throughout the scriptures, but particularly abounding in the Apocalypse, relative to the most considerable events in the history of nations, to the duration of this globe in its present state, to the commencement of the millennium, and to the day of final judgment, have been infinitely various, and produced the deepest investigations and most contradictory conclusions. That a great number of prophecies in the old and new Testament have an apparent reference to these events, cannot be denied ; and the elucidation and application of them were not by sir Isaac Newton deemed unworthy of his intense researches, nor by his name-sake, a late bishop of Bristol, of his farther annotations. It is contended that many of these prophecies have already been fulfilled ; and, therefore, that there is just reason for expecting a similar completion of the rest. Unfashionable as it may now be to look for the prototypes of many worldly events in our Bible, certain it is that those sacred oracles seem to delineate several important facts and revolutions which have since occurred.

This author divides the time ‘ from the birth of Christ to the beginning of the last great day’ into seven periods ; following, as he conceives, the distribution allotted by Daniel and St. John, in whose predictions, he thinks, he perceives amongst other remarkable events, the end of the thirty tyrants, Adrian’s destruction of Jerusalem, the conquest of Rome by Vitiges, expiring pangs of pagan tyranny, depredations of the Huns and Vandals, irruptions of the Saracens, the invasions of pestilence in the Western Empire, the desolation by Guelphs and Gibelines, the cruelties in Edessa and Antioch, the inquisition, and the progressive ruin of the Jesuits. All the calculations

are formed with a logical exactness and historical intelligence very surprising in a person verging to his eightieth year.

But however we venerate the fountains from which these profound investigations are derived, and however we respect the talents and labours of this gentleman, we cannot coincide in many of his conjectures, nor accede even to the probability of all his calculations. We are told from very high authority, that of the day when the Son of Man cometh the very angels are ignorant: But we are here presented with tables of calculation, which profess clearly to demonstrate the specific period, and to assign the commencement of what is called 'The first resurrection to millennium, and of the second resurrection to the last day.' These are points unquestionably hidden in the depths of divine knowledge; and all attempts to discover them only evidence the natural aspiration of man after intelligence, without affording the most distant hope of success. The millennium itself is a very doubtful doctrine, and may be combated by as many texts from Scripture as support it. Yet to gratify the curiosity of our readers on this interesting subject, we shall lay before them the periods which are here limited to the commencement of the first resurrection, to the millennium; of the second resurrection to the last day; and of the year appointed for that awful period. The millennium is fixed in A. D. 2436: this is to be followed by 'seven days of silence,' and 'one of acceptance.' Then comes the second resurrection, from which to the last day intervenes a period of 3444 years: this sum added to the number of years from the creation of the world to the birth of Christ, viz. 4004, yield the amount of the solar period, which is to close this earthly scene, viz. 7448: whence it appears by subtracting the number of years from the creation to the present time, viz. 5795, from the allotted period, 7448, that we have at this time of writing, in the year 1791, just 1653 years remaining till the final consummation of all things: a consideration which, as the author justly observes, 'is sufficient to make us consider what little time is left us to crave mercy.'

We have it seems been for many years sustaining *the pernicious effects of the sixth vial of the wrath of God*, and are approaching to *the third and last woe, which is to come quickly*.

This volume will afford much delightful exercise to the speculatist who is already tinged with the principles of its author: it will also supply much information to the merely inquisitive reader. But thoroughly to understand its hypotheses, and enjoy its researches, requires a considerable acquaintance with and affection for the subject.

A Simple Story. In 4 Volumes. By Mrs. Inchbald. Small 8vo. 12s. sewed. Robinsons. 1791.

A WORK of invention, bearing the name of Mrs. Inchbald, cannot but excite the curiosity and raise the hopes of the public. The entertainment her theatrical pieces have so frequently afforded is a pledge that the exertions of the same mind must afford a certain degree of satisfaction and delight. It is true that Fielding and Smollet, excellently as many of their novels are written, were indifferent dramatic poets: but we recollect no instance of a successful theatrical writer having failed in the less difficult composition of novels; and either we are mistaken, or Mrs. Inchbald has discovered the true path which she ought to pursue.

Entertaining these sentiments, after having read her book, we turn back to her preface with considerable pain. She there asserts that 'during the writing of it, she has suffered every quality and degree of weariness and lassitude, into which no other employment could have betrayed her—that she has the utmost detestation to the fatigue of inventing; and that necessity is her only motive for being an author.'—She deceives herself. Necessity most probably was the grand stimulative which induced her to submit to that length of labour, and that reiterated strength of effort, which alone can enable even genius itself to write successfully: but the pleasure resulting from labour so great, and efforts so unremitting, amply repays the pain. The mind is enamoured with the repeated discoveries of its own powers, and congratulates itself while it contemplates its beautiful offspring. Let Mrs. Inchbald reflect how often she has experienced such delight, such rapture, and forbear to complain of the labour by which it was preceded.

The merits of the *Simple Story* are many. Character is accurately delineated and faithfully preserved, with few exceptions: the most delicate feelings are continually excited: the incidents are natural; and, what is more extraordinary in the present state of novel-writing, they are new. Invention never flags, except from the author's impatience; and though this work is composed of two stories, and of two heroines, it has a peculiar unity; superior to that of some even of our best novels; of which there are two sources. The first is, there is but one hero, Dorrisforth; whose consistency of character charms, offends, agitates, and astonishes: but the still more intimate link of connection is the unremitting attention which the fable and principal characters command. The mind never loses sight of the first heroine, till she no longer occupies the scene, but gives place to Matilda:

and the reader's thoughts are then as intensely fixed on the daughter; as they before had been on her mother. The manner in which the principal persons are so constantly kept in view is eminently remarkable; and the workings of the passions are inimitably displayed.

Having spoken with so much pleasure of the parts which are meritorious, we are sorry to be obliged to notice errors; one of which is indeed glaring. This error is abruptness; and in two places it is painfully conspicuous. The first is at the beginning of the third volume; where, indulging that impatience before hinted at, a void of seventeen years is left; and a few unsatisfactory hints, instead of that fulness of narrative which probability requires, introduces a totally new story. Here, however, the power of that unity which we described above is fully displayed; for, though nothing can be more disjointed than these two stories in the present mode of connecting them, no sooner do the original hero and the second heroine possess the scene than attention is rivetted to them; and the pain of vacancy, so lately experienced, is totally lost. But the second specimen of abruptness is by far the greatest error in the work; and this is the imperfect manner in which it ends. Never was an impatience to conclude more manifest than in this novel: and we are persuaded that it was under the latent influence of those feelings of impatience, and of the bad effects of them on her denouement, that Mrs. Inchbald wrote her preface. It was one of those attempts which the human mind is always making to palliate its own imperfections.—But we prophesy there will be more than one edition; and we persuade ourselves she will not permit a second to appear with the same *crying sin*, the same disappointment of expectation artfully raised and as suddenly defeated, and left in a state of irritation, to imagine what the writer was too weary to relate.

The style of Mrs. Inchbald is in general clear and unaffected; but sometimes it is obscure and ungrammatical. There are many obvious errors of the press; and we cannot help suspecting that some of the mistakes of grammar and language originate in this source, and not with the author. The mind of Mrs. Inchbald is attentive, perspicuous, and acute; we, therefore, suspect she never could write—‘A conversation in which no other but themselves *partook a part*,’ vol. i. p. 202. At page 187 of the same volume, we have a lord Edward, though no such person exists among the dramatis personæ. Rusbrook, in the first volume, changes his name in the third and fourth to Rushbrook; and, if there be not some erratum, the word countenance (vol. i. p. 16.) is used in a manner totally unauthorised.

The

The sentence beginning at line sixth (vol. i. p. 142.) is also ungrammatical and obscure; and we remember other mistakes of a like nature, though we do not precisely recollect their place. It becomes the author to search for and to correct them. The pointing too is occasionally absurd, and destructive of the sense.

Having given the reader our own opinion, we think it proper that he should have some opportunity of judging for himself; for which purpose we have selected the following passage. To make it better understood, we shall premise that Dorriforth, the guardian of miss Milner, is a Roman catholic priest, but with less bigotry than priests of every sect are frequently supposed to indulge; and that his ward, being a Protestant, and not annexing the same ideas of sin and sacrilege to the marriage of priests as Catholics do, is secretly in love with him.

' Balls, plays, incessant company, at length roused her guardian from that mildness with which he had been accustomed to treat her—night after night his sleep had been disturbed by fears for her safety while abroad; morning after morning it had been broken by the clamour of her return. He therefore said to her one forenoon as he met her accidentally upon the stair-case, "I hope, miss Milner, you pass this evening at home?" Unprepared for the sudden question, she blushed and replied, "Yes." While she knew she was engaged to a brilliant assembly, for which she had been a whole week consulting her milliner in preparation.

' She, however, flattered herself what she had said to Mr. Dorriforth might be excused as a slight mistake, the lapse of memory, or some other trifling fault, when he should know the truth—the truth was earlier divulged than she expected—for just as dinner was removed, her footman delivered a message to her from her milliner concerning a new dress for the evening—the *present evening* particularly marked.—Dorriforth looked astonished.

"I thought, miss Milner, you gave me your word you would pass this evening at home?"

"I mistook then, for I had before given my word I should pass it abroad."

"Indeed?" cried he.

"Yes, indeed," returned she, "and I believe it is right I should keep my first promise, is it not?"

"The promise you gave me then, you do not think of any consequence."

"Yes, certainly, if you do."

"I do."

"And mean, perhaps, to make it of much more consequence than it deserves, by being offended."

"Whether

"Whether or not, I am offended—you shall find I am." And he looked so.

She caught this piercing stedfast eye—hers were immediately cast down; and she trembled—either with shame or with repentment.

Mrs. Horton rose from her seat—moved the decanters and the fruit round the table—stirred the fire—and came back to her seat again before another word was uttered.—Nor had this good woman's officious labours taken the least from the awkwardness of the silence, which as soon as the bustle she had made was over, returned in its full force.

At last, miss Milner rising with alacrity was preparing to go out of the room, when Dorriforth raised his voice, and in a tone of authority said,

"Miss Milner, you shall not leave the house this evening."

"Sir?"—she exclaimed with a kind of doubt of what she had heard—a surprise which fixed her hand on the door she had half opened, but which now she shewed herself irresolute whether to open wide in defiance, or to shut submissive. Before she could resolve, Dorriforth arose from his seat, and said with a degree of force and warmth she had never heard him speak with before,

"I command you to stay at home this evening."

And he walked immediately out of the apartment by the opposite door.—Her hand fell motionless from that she held—she appeared motionless herself for some time;—till Mrs. Horton, "beseeching her not to be uneasy at the treatment she had received," caused a flood of tears to flow, and her bosom to heave as if her heart was breaking.

Miss Woodley would have said something to comfort her, but she had caught the infection and could not utter a word—not from any real cause of grief did this lady weep; but there was a magnetic quality in tears which always drew forth hers.

Mrs. Horton secretly enjoyed this scene, although the real well meaning of her heart, and ease of her conscience did not tell her so—she, however, declared she had "long prognosticated it would come to this," and she "now only thanked heaven it was no worse."

"What would you have worse, madam?" cried miss Milner, "am not I disappointed of the ball?"

"You don't mean to go then?" said Mrs. Horton; "I commend your prudence; and I dare say it is more than your guardian gives you credit for."

"Do you think I would go," answered miss Milner, with an earnestness that for a time suppressed her tears, "in contradiction to his will?"

"It is not the first time, I believe, you have acted contrary to that, miss Milner," returned Mrs. Horton, and affected a tenderness of voice to soften the harshness of her words,

"If

"If that is the case, madam," replied miss Milner, "I see nothing that shall prevent me now." And she flung out of the room as if she had resolved to disobey him.—This alarmed poor miss Woodley.

"Dear Aunt," she cried to Mrs. Horton, "follow and prevail upon miss Milner to give up her design; she means to go to the ball in opposition to her guardian's will."

"Then," cried Mrs. Horton, "I'll not be an instrument in deterring her—if she does, it may be for the best; it may give Mr. Dorriforth a clearer knowledge what means are proper to use to convert her from evil."

"But, dear madam, she must be prevented the evil of disobedience; and as you tempted, you will be the most likely to dissuade her—but if you will not, I must endeavour."

Miss Woodley was leaving the room to perform this good design, when Mrs. Horton, in humble imitation of the example given her by Dorriforth, cried,

"Niece, I command you not to stir out of this room this evening."

Miss Woodley obediently sat down—and though her thoughts and heart were in the chamber with her friend, she never shewed by one impertinent word, or by one line of her face, the restraint she suffered.

At the usual hour, Mr. Dorriforth and his ward were summoned to tea:—Dorriforth entered with a countenance which evinced the remains of anger; his eye gave testimony of his absent thoughts, and although he took up a pamphlet and affected to read, it was plain to discern he scarcely knew he held it in his hand.

Mrs. Horton began to make tea with a mind as wholly intent upon something else, as Dorriforth's—she was longing for the event of this misunderstanding, (for to age trivial matters are important,) and though she wished no ill to miss Milner, yet with an inclination bent upon seeing something new—without the fatigue of going out of the house—she was not over scrupulous what that novelty might be.—But for fear she should have the imprudence to speak a word upon the subject which employed her thoughts, or even look as if she thought of it at all, she pinched her lips close together, and cast her eyes on vacancy, lest their significant regards might detect her.—And for fear any noise should intercept even the sound of what might happen, she walked across the room more softly than usual, and more softly touched every thing she was obliged to lay her hand on.

Miss Woodley thought it her duty to be mute, and now the gentle gingle of a tea spoon, was like a deep-toned bell, all was so quiet.

‘ Mrs.

‘ Mrs. Horton too, in the self-approving reflection that she herself was not in any quarrel, or altercation of any kind, felt at this moment remarkably peaceful, and charitable.—Miss Woodley did not recollect herself so, but was so in reality—in her peace and charity were instinctive virtues, accident could not encrease them.

‘ The first cups of tea were scarcely poured out, when a servant came with miss Milner’s compliments and she should drink none,—The book shaken in Dorrisforth’s hand while this message was delivered—he believed her to be dressing for her evening’s entertainment, and now studied in what manner to prevent, or to resent it.—He coughed—drank his tea—endeavoured to talk, but found it difficult—sometimes read—and in this manner near two hours were passed away, when miss Milner came into the room.—Not dressed for the ball, but as she had rose from dinner.—Dorrisforth read on, and seemed afraid to look up, lest he should behold what he could not have pardoned.—She drew a chair and sat down at the table by the side of miss Woodley.

‘ After a few minutes pause, and some small embarrassment on the part of Mrs. Horton, at the disappointment she had to contend with from miss Milner’s unexpected obedience, she asked that young lady “ if she would now take tea ? ”—to which miss Milner replied, “ no, I thank you, ma’am,” in a voice so languid, compared to her usual one, that Dorrisforth lifted his eyes from the book ; and seeing her in the same negligent dress she had worn all the day, cast them away again—not with a look of triumph, but of confusion.

‘ And whatever he might have suffered had he beheld her decorated, and on the point of bidding defiance to his commands, yet even upon that trial, he had not endured half the painful sensations he now for a moment felt—he felt himself to blame.

‘ He feared he had treated her with too much severity—he admired her condescension, accused himself for exacting it—he longed to ask her pardon, he did not know how.

‘ A cheerful reply from her, to a question of miss Woodley’s, embarrassed him still more—he wished she had been sullen, he then would have had a temptation, or a pretence, to have been so too.

‘ With all these thoughts crowding fast on his mind he still read, or seemed to read, and to take no notice of what was passing ; till a servant entered and asked miss Milner what time she should want the chariot ? to which she replied, “ I don’t go out to night.”—He then laid the book out of his hand, and by the time the servant had left the room, thus began.

“ Miss Milner, I give you, I fear, some unkind proofs of my regard—it is often the ungrateful task of a friend to be troublesome—sometimes unmannerly.—Forgive the duty of my office,
and

and believe no one is half so much concerned if it robs you of any amusements, as I myself am."

'What he said, he looked with so much sincerity, that had she been burning with rage at his behaviour, she must have forgiven him, for the regret he so forcibly expressed. She was going to reply, but found she could not without accompanying her words with tears, therefore as soon as she attempted she desisted.

'On this he rose from his seat, and going to her, said, "Once more shew your submission by obeying me a second time to day.—Keep your appointment, and be assured I shall issue my commands with greater circumspection for the future, as I find how strictly they are complied with."

'Miss Milner, the gay, the proud, the haughty miss Milner, sunk underneath this kindness, and wept with a gentleness and patience, which did not give more surprise than it gave satisfaction to Dorriforth.—He was charmed to find her disposition so little untractable—foreboded the future prosperity of his guardianship, and her eternal, as well as temporal happiness from this specimen."

To the readers of circulating libraries we need not recommend this work; its being a novel is sufficient to command their attention: but to those who delight in tracing the struggles and the bursts of passion, we announce a degree of pleasure, which seems to be the greater because the power of communicating it is uncommon.

FOREIGN ARTICLE.

Precis du Succès de l'Etablissement de la Ville de Paris a fait en Faveur des Personnes noyées, &c. Huitieme Partie, pour Servir de Supplement, &c. Par M. Pia, Chevalier de l'Ordre du Roi, & ancien Echevin de la Ville de Paris. 12mo. Nyon. Paris. 1789.

IT is with some regret, and only in consequence of repeated requests, that we are led to the consideration of this volume. It is painful to contrast the labours of Englishmen with those of philosophers of other nations, when we must award the palm to the latter. We had called the late Reports of Dr. Hawes dry and uninteresting; we had stated the proportional number of recoveries as greater under the treatment of the Paris operators, and we had differed in opinion from the supreme heads of the institution, in the management*. These are crimes which have raised much clamour, and it is necessary to state some facts from the abstract before us, to show that if there have been faults, they

* Crit. Rev. Vol. LXIX. p. 153.

were not ours ; and if misrepresentations have been published, it was not in this Journal. In this little volume of less than 128 pages, there is more real information than we have been able to collect from the voluminous reports of the Humane Society of London.

The eighth part, the object of our present consideration, we have preferred, not only as the latest publication, for it appeared in 1789, only one year before Dr. Hawes' Reports ; but as it contains an abstract of the others, and directions more judicious than any that we have seen, and so simple, as to require little if any medical knowledge. In reality, the most frequent, and the most successful operators are the soldiers of the city guard-rooms, for this institution is under the patronage of the magistracy of Paris, and the editor is M. Pia, formerly sheriff of that city. The directions seem to have been given by men of greater knowledge than the operators.

They order the body to be dried, and covered with a flannel night-cap, and shirt or tunic provided for this purpose, to be laid with the head a little raised, to be agitated gently, and rubbed with camphorated spirit of wine, sharpened with a little volatile alkali, on the body and breast, with the hand directed from below upwards, and in the extremities indifferently in every direction. The head is to be occasionally inclined to allow of the water which the person may have swallowed to be rejected, particularly if any inclination to this evacuation should appear. The direction for the inflation of the lungs, nearly in the usual manner, follow, and during this time, little rolls of paper-like matches moistened in the spirit of salt ammoniac, are directed to be put up the nostrils. The alkalized spirit of wine is, if possible, to be conveyed into the stomach ; and if any tendency to vomiting appears, some grains of emetic tartar are given. If the vomiting is too great, or the stools too copious, the same alkalized spirit, by decomposing the antimonial, will, it is said, lessen them, and determine the effect of the antimony to the other organs. If these measures fail, the tobacco glyster is to be given, and a little of the smoke to be conveyed into the nostrils and stomach. Bleeding, it is observed, is often very necessary, especially if the vessels are swelled, the face bloated and purple, and the eyes clear or prominent. The directors seem to prefer drawing blood from the jugular veins, but they advise that the bleeding should not be very copious. This must be understood as a relative term ; for in France the practice of bleeding, and very copious bleedings, are still too common. The signs of death are said to be the eyes appearing sunk and dim. In the advice to the surgeons, bleeding is again mentioned with the same precautions, and in other respects, it is added, ' the conduct is trusted to their judgment and recommended to their humanity.'

The advice to persons suffocated by the fumes of charcoal, and the means of preventing the bad effects of these fumes are next added. In this country, where the use of charcoal is not so common, it is a subject of less importance: we may, however, remark, that free air will prevent danger, and the steam of boiling water lessen it. The treatment consists of free air, water occasionally thrown against the face, and some cold water with a little volatile spirit being thrown, as soon as possible, into the stomach.—A description of the apparatus, which appears to be very simple and convenient, is subjoined, and illustrated with a plate.

The Society was established in 1772, two years before that of London, and the Reports have been regularly published: the abstract before us contains only the facts from 1782 to 1788, both inclusive. In 1782 there were 49 persons apparently drowned, 23 were without signs of life, and 13 had some symptoms of remaining irritability. In 4 cases only were the directors unsuccessful, and some of these appeared to be dead when taken from the water: nine were certainly dead, and no means tried. In 1783 21 were taken out of the water apparently dead, and 29 with some signs of life, who were recovered; unsuccessful cases 5. In 1784, the respective numbers of successful cases were 10 and 43, of unsuccessful ones 8. In 1785, they were 28 and 35, including the accounts from the provinces: lost 9. In 1786 the numbers in which they succeeded were 24 and 30; failed in 6. In 1787, they succeeded in 15 and 58; failed in 10. In 1788, the successful cases were 18 and the unsuccessful ones 3. We have omitted mentioning those certainly dead, on whom no means of recovery were tried, after the account of the first year, because we have introduced these numbers only for the sake of calculation: they are generally very near the number of unsuccessful cases. If then these numbers be added, it will appear that the number recovered who were apparently dead, with those in whom some signs of life remained, were in the seven years 436, the unsuccessful attempts 45—in the whole 481, that is, the failures were only one in $10\frac{2}{3}$ nearly. If it be thought more fair to take the whole numbers drowned, we must observe, that the persons certainly dead are not enumerated after 1785; but taking the average numbers of the first four years, they amount to 61 nearly, and then the number of failures is about 1 in 12. If the number taken out of the water without any signs of life, be compared with *all* the unsuccessful attempts, the recoveries are more than 1 in 3.

Some interesting anecdotes and cases really curious are subjoined. In short, if it were possible to find a direct contrast in matter as well as manner to the late volume of English Reports, it would be in the candid and benevolent publication of the chevalier Pia.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

IT always affords a pleasing subject of reflection to contemplate nature in her more secret haunts, and to observe her operations in those works where the prying eyes of philosophy have scarcely dared to penetrate. In the great outlines of nature we perceive striking distinctions, and the pride of science has shown that there are three kingdoms clearly discriminated, with their separate properties accurately defined. It has been long since the theme of the declaimer, to expatiate on the futility of these distinctions, and to point out those varying shades of connection which prevent us from saying where one class begins and the other ends: the true philosopher will accumulate facts, regardless of these vague declamations, and, without disturbing the systems, will fill up those vacant links, where our imperfect knowledge only formed the vacuum. No part of this labour has been lately more frequent and fashionable than the investigation of those properties of plants by which they approach to animals, perhaps from some fancy that, with irritability, it may be possible to find plants endowed with perception also, and a kind of voluntary motion. Other authors, with equal ingenuity, and a fancy perhaps equally erroneous, from the irritability of vegetables, which they possess without possessing a nervous system, have been inclined to consider the irritability of animals as equally independent of nervous influence, and to bring animals, so far as they were living beings, nearer to the state of vegetables. In vegetables, however, the motions are the necessary consequences of the impressions; in animals, they are modified by the will; and, though we see some necessary motions in animals, and some in plants, particularly the motions of the antheræ, when depositing the pollen, that cannot be accounted for easily in this way, yet on the whole, there is a sufficient foundation for the distinction, and for the separation of these two kingdoms.

We were led into these reflections by the account of Dr. Gahagan's Thesis, in the last volume of the Medical Commentaries, in which he wishes to prove that the irritability of animals is independent of nervous influence, and by some farther accounts of the motion of vegetables of the lower orders by M. de Saussure. The observation is as old as the time of M. Adanson, who first remarked a spontaneous movement in those green filaments which form a kind of turf at the bottom of stagnant waters. The abbé Fontana and the abbé Corti have confirmed the observation, and demonstrated a kind of animality, or at least a spontaneous movement of those filaments. M. Scherer afterwards observed the same appearance in the warm mineral springs of Carlsbad in Bohemia, and the filaments seemed to be of the same species as
were

were found in the stagnant waters by Adanson and Fontana. During our author's residence at Aix, in Savoy, in May last, M. Charles Bonnet desired him to examine whether these warm springs might not contain some living animals, since he wished to render the history of microscopic animals more perfect; thinking that these beings, remarkable for the simplicity of their organs, might be found to connect animals with plants, or plants with substances not organized. The waters of Aix are of two kinds. The one, impregnated with hepatic gas, is called sulphurated water, and is most commonly employed; the other, which has less sulphur, is styled alum water, though it does not contain a particle of that salt, and has been styled by the last chemist who analysed it, the water of St. Paul, from the church nearest its source. This term we shall consequently employ.

The heat of this water varies from 33° to 37° of Reaumur's mercurial thermometer: at its first appearance no plant or animal can be discovered by the microscope; but the bason, which receives the water, is lined at the bottom and on the sides with a green moss, which from the action of the light throws out much air, that swells the moss, and carries it to the surface. The air thrown out, by the green filaments at Carlsbad, in the sun was pure, in the shade it was less so, and in perfect darkness there was no air at all. When taken from the water, the filaments of tremella are seen by a microscope, disposed in little bundles, and it is easy to distinguish the different motions, as well as the transverse divisions: in reality, our author describes the plant as M. M. Adanson, Fontana, and Corti seem to have seen it, exactly the same as it is found at the bottom of stagnant waters.

In some parts of the tufted surface, which the tremella forms, our author observed places covered with a white mould. In the microscope, this substance appeared to be a tremella, or filaments divided by transverse diaphragms, possessing spontaneous motion. These filaments are about one half less than the green tremella of Adanson: they are about the eight hundredth part of a line in diameter. Their form is also different, for their extremities cross each other, forming rings, whose diameter is very large in proportion to the substance which forms them. The motions of these rings are very various: they rise and fall, they lengthen, sometimes enlarge, and more rarely bend into a strait line. At this time it is easy to observe the extremities, and instead of growing thin at the points, like the common tremella, they terminate abruptly, in the shape of a segment of a sphere a little flattened. These differences are constant, and seem to form a distinct species: our author calls it the white tremella.

The inferior bason of the water of St. Paul contains a third species. It is larger than that of Adanson, its diameter being one-eightieth part of a line, its transverse divisions more numer-

ous, and instead of being, like the tremella of Adanson, at a distance equal to the diameter of the filament, they are at half or a quarter of that distance. These divisions are full of a greenish substance, semi-transparent, homogeneous, and sometimes only grains are conspicuous. In a few instances the grains and the homogeneous substance were in alternate cells. This species sometimes curls, but it does not particularly affect that form like the white tremella. The colour is given by the contents of the cells, for their substance is transparent.

Their motions seem to be wholly spontaneous. When the posterior extremity is entangled in the vessels, or in the groups of filaments, the anterior extremities are agitated in every direction, without the least suspicion of the motion being owing to the fluid in which they swim, since, at the same time and in the same circumstances, they move in every different direction. They have also a progressive motion: when a little mass is put into a transparent vessel, the filaments extend over the interior surface, and even have a progressive motion in every direction. Their mean motion seems to be about one tenth of a line (an hundred and twentieth part of an inch) in a minute: it is nearly the motion of the hour hand of a large watch, and it would consequently require thirty-seven years of constant motion to march one twenty-fifth of a degree, a common league. The motion of oscillation is twenty or twenty-five times more rapid. Our author could not distinguish the organs of motion. There are probably some wrinkles and some asperities on the surface, which assist them; but they are invisible in the best microscopes. There is one peculiar circumstance which M. de Saussure has observed. 'It is a bundle of these filaments, applied parallel to each other, like a bundle of asparagus, and which moved in opposite directions, sliding one between the others, like people entering a city in a crowd of people coming out.' A single drop of an irritating fluid, either acid or alkaline, checks all these motions, without affecting the fluidity of the water. The tremellæ die at the same moment with the infusory animalcules in the same fluid. The spontaneity of their motions is proved, in our author's opinion, by the preference they seem to give to the enlightened part of the vessel, and M. de Saussure endeavours to obviate the objections which may be offered, that they appear more often in the enlightened parts, rather because they grow there, than that they march to the more enlightened spots. For this purpose he covered the glass, in which the tremella were, with a black cloth, in which were several holes to admit light; and the tremellæ were only found in these enlightened spots. But the experiment is not very satisfactory.

It is impossible, he thinks, to doubt that these apparent vegetables are really animals, though M. de Saussure admits that there

are larger species of tremellæ, in every respect resembling those in structure, that are really vegetables, and that vegetables will bend to the light. The latter motion, he alledges, is purely mechanical, and not, as in this instance, the progress of the entire plant from one part to another. If, he adds, it is contended, that even progressive motion may be mechanical, we must, like Descartes, refuse sensibility to animals the most perfect. Our author is not so cruel: he is willing to allow sensibility to the whole vegetable creation, and to deny that locomotive power is a necessary condition to attain feeling and happiness. He expatiates a little luxuriantly on the happiness thus dispersed, in which we must leave him for the present, with the refined sentimentalists of this age.

Chemical analysis supports our author's system; for, from the tremellæ of Carlsbad, M. Scherer has drawn volatile alkali and other animal productions. Another argument to the same purpose is adduced by the abbé Corti, that they multiply by divisions; but this our author has never observed: nor has he ever been able to revive them when once dead. When the season, however, is favourable, they grow with astonishing rapidity, and their growth is entirely in the night: in the day they expand, and rise to the surface, seemingly from the air emitted, though as no visible bubble of air sometimes appears, our author suspects that the tremella itself may be expanded. In general too they thrive in cold as well as in the hot water of Aix. On the whole, we think this memoir very curious, though we must confess, for reasons too long to insist on in this place, that the animality of this substance seems not satisfactorily proved. From the facts stated our readers will judge for themselves.

Another author, who contends for the animal nature of the green substance formed in stagnant water, is M. Ingenhouz. He repeats his opinions so frequently in such different works, that it is not very material from which they are taken. We prefer, for many reasons, the second volume of his Experiments on Vegetables. Though M. Ingenhouz does not describe a real plant, and endow it with spontaneous movement, he attacks the green matter, supposed by Dr. Priestley's friends, whose microscopic eye he depends on more than his own. This, he says, consists of a number of green insects, occasionally seen on the surface of the water, but sometimes attached to the sides and bottom. These exhale vital air, and are more numerous in proportion as the water is more full of putrefactive substances. In this way our author accounts for the appearances in sir Benjamin Thomson's experiments. The silk procured much more vital air than the spun glass, because it contributed more to the increase of these green insects; and, in this last volume, which we particularly

chose, as it contains more experiments, and later ones than the *Melanges de Physique*, our author varied the experiments, and obtained similar results. His system is shortly this: all vegetable substances produce vital air, when the vegetation is vigorous; and this air is elaborated by the plant, and contained in the parenchyma of the leaves; but, when the plant begins to decay, mephitic air appears. The evil, however, remedies itself. The putrefaction occasions the evolution of these green insects, which float on the surface, and, when increased to a certain number or bulk, sink in the water, glued together from a substance seemingly of their own production, and form the homogeneous glutinous matter described by Dr. Priestley, and considered by him as a species of *conserva*. But whether the *tremellæ* of M. de Saussure, or the seeming *conserva* of Dr. Priestley be animals, we consider as not yet demonstrated. The production of vital air we own is not exclusively confined to vegetables; but it will require many other experiments to prove these substances to be of the animal kingdom. Let us admit for a moment that M. Ingenhouz has discovered the green insects on the surface, we know this previous production is not a common one, and that in sir Benjamin Thomson's experiments with the spun glass, and in his own with tin threads, these insects did not appear, though the green matter and the vital air were found and produced. Besides, the same objection holds with respect to the experiments of M. de Saussure and M. Ingenhouz, that similar bodies are found to be plants, and why should they, when more minute, be considered as animals. We have already observed, that all matter in its smaller particles appears peculiarly active. The fact seems to be, that light is an ingredient in air, and that in water it finds its other component part: the air thus formed is collected on bodies put into the water, and, when vegetation begins to take place, the quantity is increased by the powers of the vegetable. The air thus formed from light and its other ingredient in water, is liable again to be decomposed, and, in this state, it is again water. This system our present knowledge does not enable us to demonstrate, but from various phenomena it appears to be very near the truth.

That we would not interrupt the chain of reasoning, we omitted to mention some botanical observations in M. de Saussure's paper, and we shall now return to it for this purpose. The *tremellæ*, which he mentions, is not the artificial genus of Linnæus, which contains some of the nostochs, but the more natural association of Adanson. A new species of nostoch, however, occurred to M. de Saussure at the baths of Aix. A yellowish substance was observed against the wall which was wetted, but not under the water: it was so thin that it could not be taken off without taking

taking off also the plaster. It appeared to the naked eye a thin membrane, but, through a microscope, which magnified two hundred times, it seemed full of little green transparent unequal globules, the largest of which was not one eight hundredth part of a line in diameter, and some of the smallest not a quarter as big. Some very minute black spots are also distinguishable. When put in water for a whole night it expanded very much, and appeared to be a true nostoch. The internal part was an homogeneous jelly, and the external containing membrane was transparent, without enabling the author to distinguish any organization, except that by the expansion, the globules appeared much more numerous.

In the botanical department we find a description of two species of quinquina, natives of the island of St. Domingo, by M. Vavasseur: but his memoir is of much more importance in another view. We have formerly mentioned two species of bark, the quinquina piton, described by M. Mallet, and the quinquina montana, by M. Badier. The species in the memoir before us are not wholly new: the first is the cincona Caribæa; the second is the cincona spinosa. 'Cincona spinosa foliis minimis subrotundis, pedunculis unifloris; corollis glabris, quadrifidis, tetrandes; feminibus sub-emarginatis.' In the analysis it may be necessary to mention, that the Peruvian bark, used as a comparison, was dry, the other barks recent; but each of the American barks afforded more extracts by means of water, proof and rectified spirit. The cincona spinosa gave the least, the Caribbæa the greatest proportion. The cincona piton a little less only than the Caribbæa; though, in most of the pharmaceutical experiments that we have seen, the last species appears to be the most active. The red bark, in large doses, we have lately found to affect the head, like the narcotic vegetables; but its antiseptic and tonic powers, in such doses, were almost miraculous.

It was formerly thought by the natives of Peru that their bark was used in dying. If it could be easily procured in sufficient quantity it might be very useful in this way. The Peruvian bark gives a very beautiful and permanent noisette; the Caribbæan bark a fine maron; the spiny bark an olive brown; but, with some care, it will produce the noisette, like the Peruvian bark.

We suspect that the Angustura bark, which we are told comes from Africa, to be from its appearance a species of Peruvian bark, though Mr. Butt assures us that Mr. Bruce has pronounced it to be the bark of the Brucea antidysenterica. The extract of bark, brought from America, said to be inspissated by the heat of the sun, is an elegant medicine, it is highly probable that the Caribbæan bark, in the West Indies, might be prepared in this

way, at a comparatively cheap rate. Though it is said to be inspissated only by the heat of the sun, in some specimens we have evidently perceived a burnt taste; but it is in general greatly superior to the usual extracts of this country.

There is a new preparation of bark by M. Lunel, which we have hitherto had no opportunity of mentioning. He directs us to boil six grains of salt of tartar, with an ounce of bark, in a pint of water; and, after filtering the decoction, one other pint of water is to be boiled with the same quantity of salt and the remaining bark. In this way no bitterness remains, and the strength of the bark, he remarks, is completely exhausted, for alcohol only extracted two grains of resin from it. Spirit of wine, digested in a bath with the saline extract, is of a deep green, and the addition of cold water makes it deposit the resin; the common extract was not affected by the alcohol, a proof, in our author's opinion, that the salt assists in dissolving the resin. We should doubt, however, in this instance, whether the astringent principle was not destroyed by the alkali, for when an alkali is added to a bitter infusion or decoction, its astringency is greatly weakened, and in some cases almost lost. This has suggested some doubts of the propriety of adding alkali to chamomile flowers, as is often done in extemporaneous prescriptions; but the real benefit resulting from the union is sufficient to quiet any chemical doubts; the reason we have often assigned, though it has been overlooked by one of our late correspondents: the astringent principle is evidently a phlogisticated acid, in modern language an oxid, whose acidity is concealed by the phlogiston, but not sufficiently guarded to be inaccessible to the action of an alkali. If any one wishes to follow M. Lunel's plan, and to make an extract of this kind, he will do well to keep it well corked in a dry place.

But in preparing extracts of all kinds, particularly the resinous ones, M. Couret's observations are of great importance. The resinous extracts, which our author chuses as examples, are those of aconite and hemlock. The hemlock, for instance, is pounded while it is fresh in a mortar; and, if too dry, a little water is to be added; the juice is then pressed out and filtered. When filtered, it is clarified with the white of an egg and a few grains of cream of tartar. The whole is suffered to boil a few minutes, and, when the vegetable resin is coagulated, the liquor is filtered through flannel. It is next evaporated in a water bath, by a gentle heat, lest it should burn or grow black, till it is of the consistence of honey; and, in the mean time, the resin is carefully dried and powdered, mixed cautiously with the extract, by sifting the powder through a sieve, lest it should concrete in grains. In this way the resin will be equally divided, and the active vir-

tues of the plant preserved without any decomposition. Some few objections may be made, and they have been made to this process; but, on the whole, it deserves great attention. We remember a memoir in some collection, where the author points out the great difference in extracts, as they are evaporated in glass or metallic vessels. The colour, the taste, and all the properties are, he thinks, better preserved in the former than in the latter; but we have omitted to refer to it, and cannot now recollect where it occurred. This, however, was the substance of the essay.

M. Remler, of Erford, has made a similar remark, respecting the use of copper vessels in making extracts; and he attributes the solubility of the copper to the neutral salts in vegetables; but, independent of this observation, his tables of the different quantities of matter soluble in water and spirits of wine, in various vegetables, are seemingly accurate, and generally useful.

We shall finish this sketch with some miscellaneous chemical observations, as some facts in this science are too curious to be for a moment delayed. They are found in two letters of M. Crell; from the first of which we shall only select the postscript.

‘I am this moment informed that M. de Ruprecht has extracted a new metal from the terra ponderosa. He prepared the heavy spar of Tyrol, by decomposing it by means of oil and fixed alkali, by washing the vitriolated tartar and liver of sulphur, and dissolving the residuum in the nitrous acid. The nitrous barytes, cleared from every particle of iron, afforded decrepitating crystals; when in powder, they detonated; exposed to a strong fire, they became white by the loss of the acid. They are then mixed with one eighth of powdered charcoal, and made into a paste with linseed or olive oil, and put into a small crucible, covered with a piece of coal which exactly fitted the top. The little crucible was then put in a larger one, and the vacuity filled with powdered charcoal; the top covered with half a pound of calcined bones. The whole was then exposed to heat in a forge, the fire animated by double bellows, and in this heat it remained an hour and three quarters. The regulus obtained in this way is round and very equable, but brittle, breaking with a fine grain. The hardness is inconsiderable, but, though freed carefully from iron, it is attracted by the loadstone. This metal may be obtained also without previously preparing the barytes. The vitrolic barytes is united for many hours with aqua regia, to clear it from iron and the loose calcareous earth. The edulcorated spar is next mixed with powdered charcoal, made into a paste with oil, and managed as the pure earth in the last experiment. In the first reduction, the specific gravity of the regulus was $6.648\frac{2}{3}$, and in the last $6.744\frac{3}{4}$. The colour resembled that of iron; the texture is laminated, and the laminæ cross each other obliquely.’

The second letter is dated in August last, though it has only reached us very lately.—‘I had the honour to inform you in my last, that M. Ruprecht had metallised the barytes. He has metallised also magnesia, taken from regularly crystalised Epsom salt. The regulus was well melted, of the brilliant colour of steel, and not affected by the loadstone. It broke with a fine grain, and when moulded resembled platina. I have been honoured by a small quantity of the regulus of barytes and magnesia; *they are decidedly metallic, and completely melted* Calcareous earth, precipitated from lime-water, has been metallised also, and the regulus is attracted by the loadstone. Flint, depurated by aqua regia, and brought into a white and tender state, has afforded a magnetic* regulus, but *this experiment has not yet been repeated*. They have attempted also to separate from the argillaceous earth the iron which it contains to reduce it. M. Ruprecht has also reduced the salt of platina, without any addition, and obtained a perfect regulus not magnetic. A perfect regulus of manganese is not attracted, and some of the reguli of barytes are also disobedient to the loadstone. The calcareous reguli are very brilliant, and, when moulded, even whiter than the magnesian: the latter, when broken, appear partly lamellated, and partly striated; the lamellæ of the grains both irregular. They are sufficiently hard, harder even than the regulus of tungstein and molybdena; and, when moulded, are of a greyish white, resembling platina. Their specific gravity is 7.383. The calcareous reguli, when broken, are of a fine massy grain, of the brilliancy of white steel. They are brittle and magnetic in those parts where they have been exposed to the fire and to the air. The other parts, at the bottom of the crucible, and where covered with the vitrified matter, are not so; and it is the same with the regulus of platina. A portion of sedative salt was once reduced.’

On these subjects we shall add no remarks. The judgment and veracity of M. Crell are undisputed; and, if these facts are misrepresented, great deceptions must have been practised. We have translated carefully, preserving his own words, that no misrepresentation may occur on our side. M. Crell might well add—‘This news is very interesting, and leads us to suspect some extraordinary revolution in chemistry.’

* By magnetic we do not mean communicating the magnetic power, but only that it is attracted by the loadstone. The same phrase, so often repeated, would appear inelegant and unpleasing.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

DIVINITY, RELIGIOUS, &c.

A View of revealed Religion; a Sermon, preached at the Ordination of the Rev. William Field, of Warwick, July 12, 1790. By Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. With a Charge, delivered at the same Time, by the Rev. Thomas Belsham. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1790.

DR. Priestley is at some pains to inform us that Presbyterians, in general, do not consider the ordination of their ministers as conferring any new powers, or giving them greater privilege, than they had before to discharge all the functions of their offices. The minister's titles to orders is the appointment of his congregation, and the service is only calculated to express the approbation of those who assist; to recommend him and his labours to the divine blessing by prayer, and to give him and the people some proper advice. Instead of a confession of faith, certain questions are put to him, which lead him 'to give as much as he thinks proper, of his views of Christianity and the ministry of it, and the motives and maxims of his own conduct for the instruction of his audience.' The ceremony of the imposition of hands, it is said, is now generally laid aside. We have given an account of the new doctrine in this respect, since, if we recollect rightly, it is the first public explanation of some reformation in the ordination of ministers. We mean not to offer any remarks on it, but only to observe, that we have not found it so commonly followed as Dr. Priestley observes it.

The Sermon is from Ephes. i. 17. 20. and it is designed to bring to the recollection of the audience those particulars, the knowledge of which we derive from revelation, and particularly from Christianity. As we are not now disputing on articles of faith, we may pronounce this as an excellently moral and truly practical discourse: we must consequently be understood to except Dr. Priestley's peculiar opinions. The necessary impression which the existence and conviction of the superintendence of a divine Being make on our mind will grow weaker, our author thinks, if not revived by occasional interpositions of his providence; and, in this state, we shall less frequently express our humility and resignation, our confidence in his goodness, and our peculiar necessities by prayer. These interpositions have therefore taken place by the mission of different prophets, and ultimately by that of Christ himself, confessedly the greatest of these: by them we have been instructed in the nature, perfections, and moral government of God; they have taught us the knowledge of our duty, and given us the strongest and most consistent examples of it. The most important tenet, a doctrine almost lost, was enforced

ed and exemplified by the precepts and the resurrection of Christ himself. The practical improvements of this doctrine deserve much attention. If, says Dr. Priestley, we consider ourselves as professing Christianity in *greater purity* than others, let us give a proof of it, by departing *farther* from iniquity. By their fruits then may they in future be known!

Mr. Belsham's Charge demands our fullest approbation : we have seen nothing more manly, rational, and judicious, for we are not *bound* to consider the spreading light of truth as relating to the progress of Socinianism. His advice is suggested by the words of St. Paul, 2 Cor. ii. 17. and if he advises the candidate, on one hand, to declare the whole council of God, it is guarded so carefully by his reflections on the limited powers of the understanding in discerning what is truth, and a proper prudence to avoid giving offence, by suggesting every doubt or difficulty which may arise, that we think the precept, with these limitations, most salutary. His advising private instruction, prudent advice, friendly admonition, salutary reproof, tender sympathy, and a Christian consolation, in addition to the public ministry, displays equal judgment and charity.

The Love of Christ the Source of genuine Philanthropy. A Discourse on 2 Cor. v. 14, 15. Occasioned by the Death of John Thornton, Esq. late of Clapham, Surry. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1791.

This is an account of the life and conduct of the late Mr. Thornton, and an apology for some of his opinions, rather than a sermon. It is scarcely within the province of a Literary Reviewer, except so far as concerns the opinion of original sin, a doctrine of which we always wish to escape the examination.

The Christian Remembrancer : a farewell Sermon, preached at Uxbridge Chapel, Middlesex, on Sunday the 7th of November, 1790. By the Rev. Walter Harper, late Assistant-Lecturer, and Joint-Lecturer of St. Andrew, Holborn. 4to. 1s. Evans. 1791.

The author, in this Farewell Discourse, gives a summary of his Doctrines from 2 Cor. xiii. 12. Finally, brethren, farewell : —Be perfect, be of good comfort, be of one mind, live in peace; and the God of love and peace shall be with you. It is, in many respects, a judicious, pious, and liberal sermon.

A Key to the Old Testament and Apocrypha, in which is given an Account of the several Books, their Contents and Authors, and of the Times, in which they were respectively written. By the Rev. Robert Gray, A. M. late of St. Mary's Hall, Oxford. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1790.

In consigning this very accurate and intelligent work to the Catalogue, we mean not to lessen its merit ; but as chiefly a compilation, it affords little room for discussion or remark. The plan

is the same with Dr. Percy's Key to the New Testament, and it is executed with great judgment, labour, and precision. There are undoubtedly some parts which we think particularly well executed, and some in which we think the author mistaken; but the latter are those general opinions that are often fixed in early life, and maintain their influence at a future period: they are such also as we have often had opportunities of mentioning. The integrity of the copies of the Old Testament, the inspiration of some particular parts of that work, the mystical meaning of Solomon's Song, are instances of this kind; on which, as our author has added no new arguments, it is less incumbent on us to enlarge.

The Whole Duty of Woman; or, a complete System of Female Morality. By a Lady, at the Desire of a late noble Lord. To which are added, Poems, entertaining, moral, and divine. 8vo. 2s. Ridgway. 1790.

These two little works thus combined are of very different natures and of various merit. The first, or the didactic part, is in the style of Solomon; but had it all the wisdom of the works of the son of David, the modern miss would yawn over it, and think

‘That by its help no maid on earth
Would gain an earthly lover.’

This may be true, but the modern fine lady will find many maxims of the utmost importance to her happiness; and the more reflecting maid may discover some observations which she would value.—The poems are chiefly moral and entertaining. Some we know are selected from different authors, and we suspect the whole to be a compilation. They are, however, strictly moral, and often highly elegant and poetical.

The Necessity and Duty of an early Instruction of Children, in the Christian Religion, evinced and enforced. By S. Cooper, D. D. 4to. 1s. Robinsons. 1790.

This is a pious and practical discourse, but founded, we think, on an improper basis; the original depravity of the human race. Whatever may be the author's or our opinion on this subject, it is certainly not necessary to go so far for the foundation. Is the seed bad because it wants sun and rain for its expansion? Is the setting dog originally defective, because he wants to be taught steadiness and caution? May not wicked examples be more numerous and more enticing than good ones, with recurring to the fall of Adam? In other respects, this sermon is equally judicious, persuasive, and clear.

Scripture Characters; or, a Practical Improvement of the principal Histories, from the Time of the Judges to the End of the Old Testament. By T. Robinson, M. A. 12mo. 3s. Dilly. 1790.

This is the second volume on the same plan, which we explained

plained in our notice of the first, vol. LXVIII. p. 405. Mr. Robinson has now gone through the whole of the Old Testament; and this volume is not, in any respect, inferior to the preceding.

CON T R O V E R S I A L.

A Letter to the Right Honourable Edmund Burke. 8vo. 2s. Debbrett. 1791.

While we praise this Letter, which we do with great warmth and cordiality, as candid, dispassionate, and an excellent model of calm expostulation, it must be with the reserve of some parts, on which we have been led to form different opinions. Our present author has not convinced us, for instance, of the impropriety of the union of the church and state; that the test laws ought to be repealed; or even that, in the supposed election of William, and in the settlement of the crown on the present family, a regard was not paid to hereditary right, so far as was consistent with other more important views. These and a few similar passages, characteristic of modern whiggism, we must except, when we repeat that, in general, this Letter deserves the warmest commendations. Its author, Sir Brooke Boothby, with all due respect for Mr. Burke, differs from him in many parts of his work, and is particularly successful against his palliations of despotism, his commendations of papal hierarchy, and of the conduct of the nobility. In his defence of the 'nunc dimittis' of Dr. Price, his remarks deserve also much attention. If, he observes, the events of the 6th of October prevented the king's flight to Metz, and consequently a civil war, every philanthropist must rejoice, and think the escape from such an evil cheaply purchased, even by the horrors of that day. He does not, however, reflect, that the evil was avoided, the flight effectually prevented, before the insults and the massacre began. Our author contends, that the whole system was so warped by time, by opinions, and prejudices, that it was impossible to amend the constitution of France: it was necessary to destroy, in order to meliorate it; but, even in this point, he appears to be less exact, for the ease with which the revolution was accomplished, shows that the minds of men had received a contrary bias; and the instructions to the members of the national assembly prove, that nothing was more distant from their constituents' minds, than the new creation which has been attempted.

The following ironical parody is admirable, and with it we must conclude our article.

* But, alas! with the Gothic feudalism of France, learning and the fine arts, and honour and humanity have passed away from among men; and Europe is on the point of being once more overshadowed with the darkness of ignorance and barbarity! Men will

will become illiberal by becoming free! The liberty of the press will put a final stop to the diffusion of knowledge! Learning will not survive the loss of its syndics and licensers, its imprimateurs, privileges, and approbations! Honour must perish by extending its influence over a multitude of persons hitherto excluded from its jurisdiction! Humanity itself will be driven like another Astræa from the earth, by substituting the soft gradations of unfelt dependencies to those violent and hostile distinctions which sever the commonwealth in twain; where one half fears and hates, and the other hates and despises! Farewell that tender and ever wakeful providence of government which suffered no rash word or extravagant thought to escape its vigilance! That salutary coercion which silently disposed of a dangerous subject without scandal or alarm! That beautiful inequality of conditions, which, by dividing men into distinct and impassible orders of beings, taught them to love as brethren! That convenient and levelling politeness which makes vice amiable and virtue unnecessary! Farewell for ever those warm and fostering beams of arbitrary power alone favourable to genius and courage, to great conceptions and great achievements! It was under your benign and genial influence, and not in the chilly atmosphere of a republic, that those miracles of valour and art were performed and produced which have served as models to all succeeding ages, and which still continues to astonish the mind with the vast superiority of their inimitable excellence!

Letter to the Right Honourable Edmund Burke. By M. Rosibonne, Curate of —, Ex-member of the National Assembly. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway. 1791.

The warmth and violence of M. Rosibonne led us at first to suspect him to be an enemy in disguise. He began to be dissatisfied, he observes, with the conduct of the national assembly, when Mr. Burke's work at once opened his eyes, and he abandoned those who had been so unfaithful to their trusts. The picture, which he draws of the present state of France, is truly hideous; but it is coloured too highly. The pen of prejudice seems to have blackened it, and sombre as we think it is, our author has deepened the hue without mercy. Subordination is, he remarks, at an end, and a great number wish for the restoration of the king. A list of the errors of the national assembly is subjoined, as well as those points in which they have disobeyed the instructions of their constituents. We have, however, many reasons to think, that this pamphlet was fabricated in London, and never appeared in any other language than the English.

Strictures on the Letter of the Right Hon. Edmund Burke, on the Revolution in France. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1791.

We cannot highly commend the spirit which dictated these
Strictures,

Strictures, or the execution of the design. Much virulence and personal dislike are very conspicuous in every page of the pamphlet. The author attributes Mr. Burke's opposition to the French revolution to a very different cause from that which has been usually assigned. Mr. Burke, he thinks, was apprehensive that, if the principles of liberty, and of a more general and adequate representation were universally diffused, his seat in parliament might be lost. On this idea, and on the reform of representation, our author chiefly dwells; and we suspect that our readers will not wish us to extend the account of the Strictures any farther.

Brief Reflections upon the Liberty of the British Subject; in address to the Right Honourable Edmund Burke. Occasioned by his late Publication on the French Revolution. By John Butler. 8vo. 2s. Debrett. 1791.

These Reflections are addressed to Mr. Burke, and contain, in some passages, a reply to his doctrines. The great body, however, of this bulky pamphlet relates to the imperfections of the English constitution, and the imperfect liberty of the British subject. Declamation of this kind, however, we cannot notice. Imperfections attend every human institution; and, in government, the necessary subordination must sometimes bear hard on an individual. But because our author is discontented with his own country, he admires the innovations of others, expecting, perhaps, that all errors will be removed, the rugged paths made plain, and the crooked ones strait. May he not be disappointed!

Lessons to a Young Prince, by an Old Statesman, on the present Disposition in Europe to a General Revolution. The Second Edition. With the Addition of a Lesson on the Mode of studying and profiting by Reflections on the French Revolution, by the Right Honourable Edmund Burke. 8vo. 4s. Simmons. 1791.

The Old Statesman has, we apprehend, been long employed in giving lectures to the young statesman, on 'political liberty,' as well as some collateral subjects, and he now rises in the scale, and offers lessons to a prince. His lessons are judicious and deserve attention; it was, he observes, the apprehension of a new cabal, ready to seize the reins of government, that enshrined the errors of a long inglorious reign, and rendered the late illness of the king a subject of the most heartfelt regret, and gave an unrestrained licence to our joy on his recovery. Much of this is undoubtedly true, and we wish the observation to be attended to where it will have the most important consequences. The observations on the constitution are shrewd, and dictated in all the brilliant captivating energy of our author's style; but, in some respects, we think him mistaken.

The reply to Mr. Burke displays much acuteness, but is debased

based by some of our author's peculiar opinions. He reprehends some of the erroneous positions with great severity, but he mixes too many personal observations; and, among the errors, mentions some passages which deserve another name. On the whole, his reply is a very able one. The work is beautifully printed; and deserves a place in the library of the prince.

A Vindication of the Right Honourable Edmund Burke's Reflections on the Revolution in France, in Answer to all his Opponents. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett. 1791.

At last, from among the crowd of critics, of answerers, of examiners and opponents, one vindicator arises. He engages in the cause of Mr. Burke with great spirit, much knowledge of the subject acquired on the spot, equal spirit and acuteness. He examines each work as it appeared, and attacks its author with pleasant sarcasm, acute raillery, or solid reasoning; and, like an able disputant, when he cannot answer satisfactorily, passes on in silence,

‘ Et quæ

Desperat tractata nitefcere posse relinquit.’

His vindication of Mr. Burke against the attacks of Dr. Priestley and Dr. Price is the most laboured and satisfactory part of his work; his answers to Mrs. Woolstonecraft, and to the pamphlet attributed to Mrs. M. Graham are the most entertaining. Our author's account of Mirabeau we shall select.

‘ Even Mirabeau, the chaste Mirabeau! whose great talents have been exercised in inventing vices; and whose long and industrious experience has been employed in ripening them into practice, is now to be the pure patriot of a patriotic people. He who had formerly trampled on every civil and domestic duty; he who had been the corrupt, the treacherous spy on mankind; is now, by a political miracle, become the immaculate leader of an immaculate revolution. This is the man, (whose entire life has been a libel on the most obvious principles of honor and honesty) under whose guidance the most ambitious, the most irritable people under heaven, are to reject, even the weaknesses of human nature, and act upon the benign, the apostolic principles of universal fraternity.

‘ There is something in the character of this man, which, not one ray of virtue has redeemed, from the frightful uniformity of vice, that is difficult to be conceived by those who have only heard of the ordinary crimes of mankind: a masterly genius, and extensive conception, in the promotion of wickedness, that has seldom been discovered in the most enlightened zeal for virtue: a spirit of enterprize in any attacks upon humanity, that has been rarely found in the most glowing moments of romantic chivalry: yet

yet such a mean and abject sense of personal danger as is reconcilable only to a man, who lives on the professed principles of being dreaded, being hated and despised. This is to be the venerable author of a constitution from which such miraculous effects are not predicted, but asserted; this the speaker, not the actor, in a revolution which I shall call by no other name, than the spurious offspring of cowardice and ambition.'

At the conclusion, this author offers some observations in defence of Mr. Burke's consistency, and has even the address to palliate what he cannot entirely disprove.—On the whole, we have not seen a little work, in which more ability, activity, acuteness, and discrimination, have been displayed.

A Second Letter to Dr. Joseph Priestley, occasioned by Mr. Courtenay's Philosophical Reflections on the Revolution in France. By Solomon De A. R. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1790.

Solomon A. R. addressed Dr. Priestley on the subject of his Letters to the Jews; the Letter before us relates to Mr. Courtenay's ironical 'Reflections.' This 'second Solomon' detects some little inaccuracies in the reasoning, and replies with some humour: but, it may be from some predilection for the 'Reflections,' or aversion to that species of humour, our author delights in; whatever may be the cause, we did not find this letter very pleasing or interesting.

P O E T R Y.

Stanzas of Woe, addressed from the Heart on a Bed of Illness, to Levi Eames, Esq. late Mayor of the City of Bristol. By Anne Yearley, a Milk-Woman of Clifton, near Bristol. 4to. 2s. Robinsons. 1790.

The gentleman, to whom this poem is addressed, is charged by Mrs. Yearley with encouraging, or rather defending, his servant, who had exercised unprovoked barbarity towards herself and children. We shall not enter into the particulars of the accusation; and whether it be just, exaggerated, or groundless, as we have no other information than the assertions annexed, we shall not pretend to offer any opinion. We can, however, safely affirm that these Stanzas appear to flow from the genuine feelings of a strong and susceptible mind. They are said to have been written on the bed of sickness, and began the first morning the physicians allowed the windows to be opened for the admission of air. They begin thus:

'Come balmy air and cheer my languid face!
Add timely vigour to my ling'ring breath,
Whisper that Faith shall ev'ry phantom chase
And off my spirit tear the toils of death!

'Play

‘ Play sadly slow, thou’lt mournful echo find,
While mental agony devours my heart,
For, O! there’s music in the midnight wind,
To those who grieve yet will not grief impart.

‘ *Sorrow, to thee, shall hold her shatter’d lyre,
Then gently touch it with my deepest sigh,
Prolong my groan, but check the ardent fire,
That once was wont to bear my soul on high.*’

These lines, though not faultless, are evidently the productions of real genius; the thought in the second stanza, and the two lines which follow, marked in Italics, more particularly, is truly beautiful and original. Mrs. Yearsley’s genius is, however, extremely unequal; and a poem subjoined, addressed to a son on his being put under the tuition of a master, is of a very inferior nature to that which precedes it.

Prophecies delivered by a Descendant from the Oracle of Delphos.
4to. 2s. 6d. Priest. 1791.

When the weeds from a field seem completely extirpated, some neglected root will spread and soon render the husbandman’s former toil fruitless. Thus we supposed the numerous worthless imitations of Kilkhampton Abbey were forgotten, till this scyon, from the old root, began to spread its deleterious branches. Like its progenitors, it is full of the most illiberal abuse on all ranks and descriptions.

The New Parliamentary Register; in a Series of Political Epistles.
Dedicated to Charles Anstey, Esq. Author of the New Bath Guide.
12mo. 2s. Ridgway. 1791.

The successor of the B—n—r—d family inherits some of his ancestor’s spirit and humour; but, as from the dedication, he is not alter & idem, we suspect that he is not even a *direct* descendant. We have consulted some able genealogists, who have differed on the subject: one contended that our author is a first cousin of the famous and inimitable S—n B—n—r—d; another that he is only a cousin *once removed*. Without troubling ourselves about nice distinctions, we shall select a few lines, to enable our readers to judge for themselves.

‘ Now your Lord is a species of pillar, I find,
Whose Corinthian capital graces mankind;
(As appears by a very sublime publication,
With which a great genius has favour’d the nation)
So their order, if stripp’d of the title it boasts,
Must remain, I’m afraid, little better than posts.
Hence mark with what judgment the minister labours
To improve by the faults of our wrong-headed neighbours.

The nobles of Gallia, thro' Europe, we know,
 Were so highly respected a few years ago,
 That scarce a French Barber we happen'd to see,
 But we courteously call'd him *Monsieur le Marquis*,
 That badge of distinction their folly has lost,
 And since they no longer this title can boast,
 Lest a race so illustrious should quite disappear,
 It was right to encourage the breed of 'em here.'

P O L I T I C A L.

A Review of the Arguments in Favour of the Continuance of Impeachments, notwithstanding a Dissolution. By a Barrister. 8vo. 2s. Clarke, 1791.

This gentleman is an exception to the supposed unanimity of the legal corps, and argues with great precision and ability, that the dissolution of parliament does not stop the proceeding on an impeachment, or compel the parties to begin de novo. He adduces the several precedents, and examines each very minutely and judiciously. We cannot recommend a better work to those who would wish to see a dispassionate examination of the question.

An Examination of Precedents and Principles; from which it appears that an Impeachment is determined by a Dissolution of Parliament. The Second Edition, much enlarged. By Edward Christian, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Deighton. 1791.

This work we have already commended, and it may with great propriety be joined to the former. 'The Barrister,' notices some of Mr. Christian's arguments, and replies to them satisfactorily. The Appendix, containing all the precedents, is now, we believe, first added, and the Examination is in many parts more full and complete.

An Examination of the Expediency of continuing the present Impeachment; by Ralph Broome, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale. 1791.

The able author of the 'Elucidation of the Articles of Impeachment' thinks that the continuation of the prosecution is inexpedient, and supports his opinion by showing the futility of the arguments urged for the continuation. The question of the expediency will be decided probably before this article reaches the public view; but even at this time, it is perhaps not improper to observe, that Mr. Broome's Observations, in our opinion, deserve great attention. We cannot say that they have convinced us of the inexpediency of the continuance, because we were convinced before.

Essay on the Effect of a Dissolution of Parliament on an Impeachment by the House of Commons, for high Crimes and Misdemeanours. By Capel Lofft. 8vo. 2s. Johnson. 1791.

Mr. Capel Lofft examines the precedents on this subject with great

great attention and precision. There are no direct instances, he observes, where the dissolution seems to have stopped the impeachment, and there are some where it has had the opposite effect. The language of the various resolutions, the analogical reasoning, and every constitutional argument, in his opinion, support the continuation of the impeachment. Of course, therefore, in the late decision, parliament cannot be *impeached* of misconduct. Indeed every part of the question seems to have been argued with great ability; and, we may add, if it will not appear impertinent, determined with the greatest propriety.

M E D I C A L.

An Essay on Vital Suspension: being an Attempt to investigate and to ascertain those Diseases in which the Principles of Life are apparently Extinguished. By a Medical Practitioner. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1791.

Our author, whose peculiarity of language, if he be not a foreigner, betrays no little affectation of the medical style of the fifteenth century, is in general very acute and accurate in his enquiry. The great objects of this Essay are to ascertain the place of the disease (for so, many physicians choose to style it) in nosological systems, and to investigate the cause of this asphyxy. The first is of little consequence, and the second he considers, very properly, to arise from the suspension of breathing. His reasoning from this first change is very correct; and the consequences are either such as respect the distribution of the blood, or its chemical qualities. One fact that we do not remember having seen so fully insisted on, is the fluidity of the blood from the want of vital air, or more probably, as we suspect, from the retention of its fixed air. This appearance our author shows is not uncommon in other instances, where the blood is not regularly exposed to the atmosphere. On the whole, the Essay is an able one; and when once the peculiarity of the style is a little familiar, the judicious remarks interspersed will appear of more value. The methods of relieving the 'vital suspension' are not carefully examined: the author is contented with comparing the usual remedies with transfusion, a mode of cure that cannot easily be practised, and will not readily be adopted.

A Letter to the Patentee, concerning the medical Properties of the Fleecy Hosiery. By William Buchan, M. D. The Third Edition, with Notes and Observations by the Editor. 8vo. 1s. Sold at 99, Holborn. 1790.

Fleecy hosiery for ever! We should have, however, recommended this pamphlet more *feelingly* in a bleak November, or a severe January; but in truth these warm cloathings have their merits; and, in *sober sadness*, the asthmatics, the nervous and

rheumatic patients, as well as the arthritics, may derive much benefit from them.

The Poor Man's Medicine Chest; or, Thompson's Box of Antibilious Alterative Pills. With a few brief Remarks on the Stomach. By John Weeks Thompson. 8vo. 1s. Taylor. 1791.

A quack bill in the usual style, written with more than usual accuracy. One or two miscellaneous facts are of importance in a medical view.

Annual Oration, delivered March 8th, 1790, before the Medical Society, Bolt-court, Fleet-street, London, by George Wallis, M. D. 4to. 2s. Robinsons. 1790.

It is perhaps essential to the nature of an annual oration, that the subject should be, in some degree, a popular one, and that the language should be elevated a little above the colloquial, or the more sedate style of philosophic investigation. There is, however, at times, too great *turgescence*, which envelops an inaccurate idea, or a splendor which hides an incorrect metaphor. In general, indeed, these faults are not so conspicuous as to offend.

The design of this Oration is to show that specifics do not exist, and that in curing diseases, the physician, instead of theory, should attend to indications, or the changes to be produced in the constitution, collected from the history of the case, the habits of the patient, and the present symptoms. In each respect, Dr. Wallis has acquitted himself very ably.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

Addenda to Anecdotes, &c. ancient and modern. With Observations. By James Petit Andrews, F. A. S. 8vo. 2s. Stockdale. 1790.

Mr. Andrews, by these additions, has not sullied his character of a diligent collector and a pleasing relator of anecdotes, which he acquired by his first publication, noticed in our LXVIIIth volume, p. 340. We shall prefer filling our article with the following anecdotes of Mr. Oldys, to any farther remarks of our own.

* Mr. Oldys had but a slender portion of classical learning, and knew little of the sciences; but for index-reading, title-pages, and the knowledge of scarce (English) books and editions, he had no equal.

* He had great good-nature, honour, and integrity, particularly as an historian, for he has been known to have refused a large sum, to permit his name to be affixed to another person's work. But a violent attachment to drinking, and to low company, tended to obscure his good qualities.

* His

His Life of Sir Walter Raleigh gained him great credit, and even influenced the duke of Norfolk so far in his favour, that he procured for Oldys a comfortable appointment in the Herald's Office. In that situation he was sometimes much disgraced by his passion for liquor, particularly at the funeral of the princess Caroline, when the crown on a cushion, entrusted to his care, is reported to have made many unseemly staggers.

His method of composing lives was singular. He had a number of parchment bags inscribed with the name of him he meant to write of, and into them he put every anecdote he could collect. From these stories he drew up each respective history.

By his excesses he was kept so poor, that in 1761, when he died, he left little more than what was sufficient to bury him.

In some of the pages of our Journal we have recorded the anecdote of Muretus in a different way from Mr. Andrews' account, p. 53. 'Fiat experimentum,' it was said by the physicians, 'in corpore vili.'—To which it was reported that he replied—'nullum corpus vile est, pro quo non dedignatus est Christus mori.'—No person is contemptible for whom Christ was offered up as an atonement. The way in which we have related it is more characteristic, but we do not recollect our authority.

An Abridgment of the History of Scotland, from Robertson, Stuart, &c. in the Manner of Goldsmith's Abridgment of the Histories of England, Rome, and Greece. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Kearsley. 1791.

Historical abridgments, judiciously executed, are doubtless well calculated for the use of schools. But to answer such a purpose successfully, we think that they ought not to be too much divested of the splendid and remarkable incidents, which, though perhaps of unquestionable authenticity, have generally been recited by historians. The curiosity natural to youth will dispose the mind to pursue with greater eagerness a narrative containing splendid transactions, than such as is strictly confined to political detail. In the present Abridgment, the author seems to have leaned too much to the fault we are now reprehending. His division of the Scottish history into four distinct periods, according to its degrees of probability, is justified by the practice of others. But while, like a skilful surveyor, he protracts so well the different stages of the historical map, we wish that he had admitted into the intermediate spaces those objects which, by exciting the attention of youth, would have rendered them more ardent in the pursuit of historical information. Considering the design of the work, we cannot approve of employing so great a part of it on the history of queen Mary and her son, which, a few transactions excepted, are not likely to prove very interesting to the class of readers for whom it is intended. We must not withhold

hold our opinion that the abridgment is disproportioned in its different parts; but the narrative is faithful, though deficient of interest, and it affords a just account of the feudal state of Scotland in former times.

Authentic Memoirs of William Augustus Bowles, Esq. Ambassador from the United Nations of Creeks and Cherokees, to the Court of London. 2s. 8vo. Faulder. 1791.

By what means the writer of these Memoirs has collected his materials we know not; but he gives such an improbable account of Mr. Bowles' natural ingenuity respecting different arts and sciences, as cannot impress us with any great opinion of the authenticity of the narrative. The author is likewise inconsistent with himself in his account of the age of his hero. In one place, he informs us that Mr. Bowles is about twenty-six years of age, though, from what is related in another page, he ought to be at least twenty-nine. We believe, however, that Mr. Bowles is a gentleman of great merit, and are happy to think that Great Britain has so faithful and zealous a friend among the Creek Indians.

Attic Wit; or, a Medley of Humour: containing an agreeable Variety of Bon Mots, Jokes, and Repartees. 12mo. 1s. Hamilton. 1791.

A wretched olio, collected from former jest-books, but ill chosen, and badly told.

Buffon's Natural History abridged. Illustrated with great Variety of Copper-plates. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Kearsleys. 1791.

This is a very entertaining and sufficiently accurate abridgement of Buffon, to which, in the lower orders of animated nature, the pleasing, but superficial, and often incorrect Goldsmith, has contributed. The chief defect, that we have observed, is in the plates. Animals of such different sizes are represented in the same plate, that no idea of proportion can be formed. The crocodile, for instance, is no bigger than the toad.

Secret Memoirs of Robert, Count de Paradès, written by Himself, on coming out of the Bastile. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Baldwin. 1791.

Though it is not uncommon for spies to over-rate their services, and to represent every attempt that they recommend in the most promising light, we have many reasons for thinking that the *substance* of these Memoirs are true. Plymouth might have been taken, and its dock-yard destroyed at that time, by the means, the apparently inadequate force designed for it. The indecisive conduct of the French commander was conspicuous from the shore, and we may congratulate ourselves that he was not animated by the spirit of the count de Paradès. While some

of the facts and circumstances are certainly misrepresented; we hope that the facility with which Englishmen were induced to assist the enemies of their country may be added to the list of errors.

Bibliotheca Parisiana. A Catalogue of a Collection of Books, formed by a Gentleman in France. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Edwards. 1791.

It is said of Alexander that he would be painted only by Apelles; and, in this instance also, the beauty of the workmanship is worthy of the excellence of the subject. We never remember seeing a catalogue so well stored with beautiful and correct editions, and we never remember seeing one so well printed. Some detached observations, occasionally interspersed, are of importance, and greatly raise this catalogue above a mere 'muster-roll of names.'

Thoughts concerning the proper Constitutional Principles of Manning and Recruiting the British Navy and Army. By the Hon. and Rev. James Cochrane. 4to. 2s. Robinsons. 1791.

The method recommended by this author for manning the navy resembles the custom of registering the seamen in France. Each sea-port should, he thinks, furnish its quota, and an embargo be laid on its shipping till the men are procured. The army he proposes to be filled up from the militia, and by men furnished by a kind of ballot from each parish.

A Dictionary of the ornamental Trees, Shrubs, and Plants, most commonly cultivated in the Plantations, Gardens, and Stoves, of Great Britain; arranged according to the Linnæan generic Names, and containing full and accurate Descriptions of the different Genera and Species, with the generic and specific Names properly accented. By Charles Bryant. 8vo. 9s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons. 1790.

This Dictionary is a very convenient companion in the flower-garden. After a general description of terms, the several classes, orders, and the more important genera, are shortly described in their proper order, and in scientific terms. In the Dictionary, which follows, each genus is arranged alphabetically with its more important and ornamental species; after which are some observations respecting their use. The whole is concluded by an index of English names. The plants can in this way be easily known; and the most valuable are carefully selected. Our author is sufficiently accurate in his descriptions; but his criticisms on the conduct of Linnæus are not always well founded.

A Treatise on the Cotton Trade: in twelve Letters. Addressed to the Levant Company, West India Planters, and Merchants. By Experience. 12mo. 1s, 6d. Taylor. 1791.

'Experience' speaks to the purpose; and as we know some of his allegations to be true, we may suppose the others are so also. But as this is not a literary subject we must refer it to be reviewed by the Treasury Board.

A concise Statement of Transactions and Circumstances respecting the King's Theatre, in the Hay-Market. By Mr. Taylor, the Proprietor. Together with the official Correspondence upon the same Subject, between the Right Hon. the Lord Chamberlain, and Earl Cholmondeley, &c. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. 1791.

Aristotle and the opera have been ever at variance, and the modern scribleriads cannot engage with either Mr. Taylor or Mr. O'Reilly. We recommend them to the justice of the King's Bench, or the humanity of the higher powers.

A few Words on the Nature of the Slave Trade; and the Measures which ought to be adopted. 8vo. 2s. Walter. 1791.

Our author recapitulates the whole train of real and factitious horrors: it is the crambe recocta of the numerous tales, fabrications, and facts, which have been so repeatedly the theme of modern reformers.

CORRESPONDENCE.

A New Correspondent charges us with inconsistency, in our account of Dr. Wendeborn's Work, respecting the antiquity of the supposed Ossian. If he had read the article attentively, he would have seen, that the object of the Reviewers was only to refute the idea of their being the forgeries of Macpherson. If they are not, who can distinguish the difference between three or four hundred years, in the age of poems, handed down by oral communication?

ON referring to Dr. Geddes' New Translation, the first part of which we received since our Article on Mr. Bruce's Appendix was printed, we find nothing to countenance the opinion that the Ishmaelites, Gen. xxvii. 25, went to Gilead to add the opobalsamum to their lading. Dr. Geddes adds in a note, 'whether these be the very same things denoted by the Hebrew corresponding names is not altogether certain, and there is a considerable disagreement among the ancient versions.'

CRITICAL REVIEW.

For M A R C H, 1791.

The Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy for 1788. 4to.
18s. Boards. Elmsley. 1790.

WHILE various temporary publications, and the recent controversy respecting the French revolution, have prevented us from attending to the different opinions on the supposed antiquity of Irish population, and of Irish history, we were not able to examine with sufficient care and precision the volume of Transactions now before us. But, since that subject approaches to a termination, we can at least proceed to those parts of the present work, less connected with the disputed subject. The Philosophical Papers we shall therefore examine in their order.

An Account of the Moving of a Bog, and the Formation of a Lake, in the County of Galway, Ireland. By Ralph Ousley, Esq. M. R. I. A. Communicated by Joseph Cooper Walker, Esq. M. R. I. A.—This singular phænomenon arose from the bursting of a water-spout, whose contents propelled the bog from its situation, and carried it over some neighbouring meadows, where it rested. In this spot it impeded the course of the river Dromore, and from the stagnation a lake was formed: the lake was afterwards incompletely drained, and the stream of the river in some degree restored; but, from the remaining water, a lesser lake still exists.

An Account and Description of three Pendulums, invented and constructed by John Crosthwaite, Watch and Clockmaker, Dublin.—The great peculiarity and merit of the first pendulum are owing to its consisting of two rods; the lengthening or shortening of the first alter the dimensions of the second in the opposite way: the peculiarities of the other pendulums we find it difficult to describe without the plate.

An Account of a new Method of Illuminating the Wires, and Regulating the Position of the Transit Instrument. By the Rev. Henry Usher, D. D. S. F. T. C. D. M. R. I. A. and F. R. S.—This memoir also requires the plate; but Mr. Vince's late work, and particularly Mr. Ramsden's improvement of this instrument, by illuminating it, should be considered at the same time: we transcribed Mr. Vince's account of Mr. Rams-

den's method, in p. 67 of this volume of our Journal; for the first suggestion of which he seems to have been indebted to Dr. Usher.

An Essay to improve the Theory of Defective Sight. By the Rev. John Stack, F. T. C. D. and M. R. I. A.—We long since endeavoured to show that the different degrees of convexity of the eye would not account for the phenomena of long and short sight; for these phenomena might be occasioned by numerous other variations in the structure of that organ. Some of these Dr. Stack endeavours to illustrate. He chiefly confines himself to the density of the chrySTALLINE, which it is well known diminishes as the distance from the center increases, to admit of the rays converging in one focus, and to prevent the diversity which would arise from the different refractions of the central and the more oblique rays. Some confusion in the picture on the retina is undoubtedly owing to this cause in persons commonly styled near-sighted, and it is removed by contracting the eye-lids and excluding the oblique rays: the same effect is produced by others, whose iris, from different causes, does not readily contract, particularly in cases where its fibres have been injured by couching. All these people see better thro' a pin-hole pricked in a card. When the difference of density is very little, or when the causes of near or obscure vision arise from organical defects, no glass will relieve. In the former case our author recommends a concavo convex, of a greater curvature on the concave side than on the convex; for then the refraction of the central rays can be made the same, as in the double concave, while that of the more distant rays is diminished. But perhaps the curvature of some of the conic sections, particularly the parabolic, might be more advantageously employed for this purpose. If the foci of the central and more distant rays be on different sides of the retina, our author thinks the inconvenience may still be remedied by combinations of different lenses, like the compound object-glasses of Dollond.

An Account of some Observations made with a View to ascertain whether magnifying Power or Aperture contributes most to the Discerning small Stars in the Day. By the Rev. Henry Usher, D. D. M. R. I. A. and F. R. S.—The eye-glasses of the transit-instrument, in the observatory at Dublin, are of three different kinds, making the magnifying power of the instrument 200, 400, and 600. These systems are constructed on the principle explained by Mr. Ramsden, in a Paper published in the Philosophical Transactions, and may be changed without disturbing the line of collimation, or altering the quantity of celestial spaces subtended by the intervals of the wires. This instrument was therefore employed in the experiments.

experiments. Our author concludes in favour of great magnifying powers, with diminished aperture, and finds that, by means of a considerable diminution of aperture, the polar star may be made 'so distinctly round and large, that the appulse of its limbs to each edge of the wires, as well as the passage of its center over them, may be distinctly observed;' obtaining 'much greater precision in proving either the collimation or meridian.'

An Essay on the Variations of the Barometer. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. M. R. I. A. and F. R. S. — This is an admirable essay; but as it consists so much of distinct miscellaneous observations, it is impossible to give an adequate account of it: indeed if it had not occurred in a voluminous collection, we should more readily have referred the reader to the whole at length. The barometer, Mr. Kirwan observes, was the first instrument that led philosophers to suspect the dogmas of antiquity; which opened their eyes, and taught them the important lesson, *fiat experimentum*. It soon was supposed to teach more than it was capable of performing; for, though the marine barometer will foretel impending storms, that on land will not show the changes of weather very unequivocally, or without the necessity of many restrictions. The various observations on the thermometer we cannot abridge, nor can we refer to common systems, for many of these remarks are new, occur in uncommon works, or have been collected since meteorology has been more attentively studied. The causes to which the variations of the barometer have been attributed are the influence of different temperatures; of the winds, of vapours, and an unequal diffusion of the higher atmosphere. The different temperatures, our author thinks from calculation, cannot have any effect, and his enquiry how far the mass of the lower atmosphere is increased, in proportion to the condensation of its volume, is extremely curious: it was occasioned by a fact which happened at Ponoï, where the difference of temperature was 19° , and the variation of the barometer .9 of an inch. The influence of the winds has long since been given up; and that of the vapours our author thinks indefensible; but this subject is not yet clearly understood. The nature of the elastic vapour formed by evaporated water, and the degree of its elasticity, in different circumstances, is not yet explained: almost at the moment of becoming water it is remarkably transparent. The following calculation, however, grounded on what we know of this fluid, is singularly curious, and contains some facts not generally known. Where our author's weights differ from those of other philosophers, they have been determined by his own experiments and calculations.

‘ From this view of the nature of vapours, and the change they produce in the weight and elasticity of the atmosphere, it is plain that their presence or absence cannot fully account for the variations of the barometer. For if we suppose the atmosphere perfectly dry, the barometer at 30 inches, and the thermometer at 65° , and then a column thereof to be saturated with moisture, its elasticity being encreased $\frac{1}{5}$, it will contain $\frac{4}{5}$ of its volume less air than before saturation, since the increase of its elasticity arises from the introduction of a new elastic fluid amounting to $\frac{1}{5}$ of its bulk : and since the weight of the whole volume was at first equal to that of 30 inches of mercury, its weight will now be lessened by $\frac{1}{5}$ of 30 inches, that is nearly 0,59 of an inch. But on the other hand it gained $\frac{1}{5}$ of its volume of vapour, therefore its real loss of weight will be the difference of the weight of $\frac{1}{5}$ of air, and $\frac{1}{5}$ of vapour ; but the weight of air is to that of vapour as 12 to 10, therefore the gain here is 0,49 of an inch, which deducted from 0,59, the loss, leaves the loss $\frac{1}{10}$ of an inch. This, therefore, is the variation the barometer should undergo by the passage of a column of air from absolute dryness to complete saturation, a circumstance which perhaps never takes place, as the atmosphere is never absolutely dry ; and yet previous to heavy rains we often observe the barometer to fall 3, 4, or 5-tenths of an inch, a fall which we see cannot originate from the saturation of the atmosphere with vapour. Nor is there any proportion between the ascent of mercury after heavy rains and the weight of vapour condensed, for in such cases the mercury frequently rises 3 or 4-tenths of an inch ; and yet the heaviest rain seldom produces one cubic inch of water, and the weight of a cubic inch of water is not equal to that of even $\frac{1}{10}$ of a cubic inch of mercury.’

To the unequal diffusion of the higher atmosphere Mr. Kirwan therefore attributes the variations of the barometer, and explains, on this foundation, the various observations with great ingenuity. This cause has undoubtedly the principal, but we suspect not the whole influence, for the reasons already assigned, and the apparently obvious connection of the change in the heights of mercury, and the greater or less proportion of vapour in the air. In support also of our opinion, the late observations of father Cotte, and particularly the regular diurnal variations in the height of the mercury, may be adduced. To our author’s theory, that the aurora borealis is owing to the inflammation of the inflammable gas, which rises to the top of the atmosphere, and is inflamed in the northern regions by electricity, various objections may also be made. But we ought to transcribe Mr. Kirwan’s arguments, and we cannot lengthen this article by our opposition : the decision must be left to the judgment of our readers.

‘ First.

‘ First. It is certain that inflammable air is produced, particularly between the tropics, by many natural operations, such as the putrefaction of animal and vegetable substances, volcanoes, &c. and that this air is lighter than any other, and consequently occupies the highest regions of the atmosphere; and hence Mr. Saussure and others have found the air on the highest mountains less pure than that on the plains, and its electricity stronger.

‘ Secondly. It is allowed by Dr. Halley and others who have treated of the trade winds, that the highest air between the tropics is thrown off on both sides towards the poles, and of this I think I have given sufficient proof; therefore it is inflammable air that is chiefly thrown off towards the poles.

‘ Thirdly. It is certain that the northern lights are the highest of all meteors, though they sometimes extend pretty low into the inferior atmosphere; and Dr. Franklin’s conjecture, that they proceed from electricity, is at present generally followed by all meteorologists. A detail of their reasons I must omit, as it would occasion too great a digression from the present subject.

‘ Fourthly. It is certain that after the appearance of an aurora borealis the barometer commonly falls. This observation was first made by Mr. Maddison in America; and I have seen it verified in the diaries of the Berlin Academy for 1783 and 1784, the only ones which I have consulted. These meteors are also generally followed by high winds, and usually from the south, all which strongly prove a rarefaction in the northern regions. These lights are much more common in the higher latitudes of North America than in the same latitudes in Europe. Captain Middleton remarks that they appear almost every night in Hudson’s Bay, lat. 59, whereas at Peterburgh they are seen much more rarely; which confirms my opinion that the superior effluence is more copiously distributed over North America than over the old continent.’

An Account of some Experiments on Wheel-Carriages. In a Letter from Richard Lovel Edgworth, Esq. M. R. I. A. and F. R. S. to the Rev. Dr. Henry Ussher, M. R. I. A. and F. R. S.—These experiments were suggested by some trials made in 1773, to determine the different powers of high and low wheels in overcoming given obstacles. Each party claimed the victory, and the cause our author endeavours to assign, without however hinting that experiments of this kind, where the line of traction is parallel to the plane on which the carriage moves, are fallacious. In moving a carriage, the weight, he remarks, not only acts in giving velocity, but in overcoming the vis inertię. When an obstacle intervenes, the new direction gives the vis inertię a new power, and it is again to be overcome in the direction. He found that, when a high wheel touched the top of the obstacle at once, it was more

disadvantageous than a low wheel, which rolled up as over an inclined plane; a result evidently connected with the parallel line of traction. Loads, placed on springs, he finds greatly facilitate the drawing. On smooth roads the height of the carriage is, it seems, of inconsiderable importance, and on rough roads disadvantageous: on uneven roads long carriages are preferable, and on roads with deep ruts, short ones. In our author's experiments the usual methods were in some degree varied, but the power acted in the direction of the axle, and consequently in a line parallel to the plane of the wheel's motion.

An Enquiry into the different Modes of Demonstration, by which the Velocity of Spouting Fluids has been investigated a priori. By the Rev. M. Young, D. D. F. T. C. D. and M. R. I. A.—In this enquiry our author examines the different theories on this subject, and the result of the various experiments. The mean velocity with which water spouts from a vessel wholly or in part filled with water to the height of 16 and 12 inches, is less than by the theory in the ratio of 1.6 to 1 nearly.

Observations on Gun-Powder. By the Honourable George Napier, M. R. I. A. Communicated by the Earl of Charlemont, P. R. I. A.—Mr. Napier's essay contains many facts of very great importance, and some hints of considerable utility. It is deficient only in the theory. Our author finds that the most careful selection and the most accurate combination of the materials are sometimes defeated by accident; and powder prepared without so much attention will be of stronger proof than that which cost so much care. This is partly owing to circumstances with which Mr. Napier seems not to be acquainted; and the sea-salt, for instance, which does not appear to impair the activity of powder, has probably, in the preparation, absorbed some pure air from the nitre. The best proportions are, he thinks, three pounds of nitre, nearly nine ounces of charcoal, and three ounces of sulphur. Two ounces of Chinese powder analysed, gave 102 dwts. of nitre, 6 dwts. of charcoal, and 3 dwts. 14 grains nearly of sulphur. It was of a large grain, and angular. It was very durable, and it is remarkable that some powder, made in the reign of Charles II. was found at Purfleet, and examined by our author, when it appeared not materially injured by age*. The mode of combining the materials follows, with some judicious hints for its improvement. Our author thinks glazing the powder renders it more durable, and he finds the dust of pow-

* This is attributed by Mr. Napier to the employment of *home made* nitre.

der much more powerful than has been suspected. On the whole, this essay deserves very particular attention from the manufacturers of this article, and particularly from government, though since Mr. Napier's time, and even since the last war, the manufacture is greatly improved.

Observations on the Magnetic Fluid: By Captain O'Brien Drury, of the Royal Navy. Communicated by Colonel Vallancey, M. R. I. A.—Our author's observations, though short, are of great importance. The compass-needle, he observes, loses by time its power; and from this cause many errors in reckoning arise. This is, he thinks, prevented by casing the needle with soft iron, or arming it at the poles by pieces of this metal in its soft state.

A critical and anatomical Examination of the Parts immediately interested in the Operation for a Cataract; with an Attempt to render the Operation itself, whether by Depression or Extraction, more certain and successful. By Silvester O'Halloran, Esq. M. R. I. A. Honorary Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland, and Surgeon to the County of Limerick Hospital. Communicated by the Right Hon. the Earl of Charlemont, P. R. I. A.—After a short examination of the state of opinions on this subject at different periods, our author proceeds to a description of the eye. There is, he contends, no posterior chamber of the aqueous humour, but the chrystalline is close to the iris, inclosed in the duplicature of a membrane arising from the ligamentum ciliare, and resting in a socket in the vitreous humour. The iris is attached to the ciliary circle, he thinks, above and below, but at either angle is a little drawn down, assuming by this means some convexity. The description of the iris we shall select.

‘ With other anatomists, I always imagined that this last was a real continuation of the choroides; I am now satisfied that it is not, and that the assertion is very nearly as absurd as to affirm that the diaphragm is a continuation of the pleura, though the choroides adheres pretty closely to the sclerotica, near the insertion of the optic nerve; yet from thence to the ligamentum ciliare, the correspondence is mostly kept up by blood vessels and nerves passing from one to the other. Here a close adhesion of the choroides to the sclerotica commences. At the middle of the superior and inferior parts of the eye, it begins at the very edge of the sclerotica, bordering on the cornea transparens, but from thence to the two canthuses it gradually retires back on the sclerotica; the adhering part from the choroides, called ligamentum ciliare, is truly tendinous, and forms an expansion or covering to the iris; within side this are groupes of blood-vessels from the arterial circle of the iris, proceeding in nearly straight lines, as well to the pupilla as to the ci-

liary ligament. To prove that the iris is totally different from the choroides, and truly muscular, it is only necessary to observe that the inside of the ligamentum ciliare answering to its breadth, is fleshy and thicker than any other part of this body; its fibres proceed radiated, or nearly so, from thence towards the iris. Here the covering of the anterior part of the vitreous membrane commences, and so closely is this attached to these radiated fibres, that their impressions are sunk deep into it, and may be called the fulci of the processus ciliares. This first range of fibres on the inside of the iris is in a human eye about the breadth of a line; a kind of tendinous narrow and circular band closes this phalanx, and from thence proceeds a second row of radiated fibres, thinner than the first; these also adhere and leave their impressions on the vitreous membrane; and that part of the iris which forms the pupilla is still finer than the last-mentioned, rests on the chrySTALLINE, and is quite free from any adherence, by which means it contracts or dilates in proportion to the vicinity or distance of objects. Thus the convexity of the iris follows nearly that of the cornea transparens, and is occasioned by the protuberance of the chrySTALLINE; so that the idea of a posterior chamber of the aqueous humour must be for ever banished; nor is that of circular fibres belonging to the iris better founded in truth and anatomy. These last we are constantly told were formed for the purpose of contracting, as the radial ones were for expanding, the pupilla; but not to advert to a fact, which is, that the state of quiescence in the pupilla is its dilatibility, which is evident, because when asleep or in a state of inattention with respect to objects, we constantly find it so; I shall just observe that there are none but radial fibres through the whole internal surface of the iris.

There is no such thing, in our author's opinion, as an adherent cataract; and the phænomena, which occasioned the suspicion, are owing to the resistance of the capsule, and the return of the chrySTALLINE, when depressed, in consequence of its elasticity. Our author gives very judicious directions for depressing the cataract; but we should always prefer the extraction. When depressed below the vitreous humour, the chrySTALLINE, he observes, wastes and is destroyed; when it escapes in the aqueous humour, it continues unaltered; but, in this point, he is in opposition to the general analogy of nature, and to the observations of able surgeons. In the remarks on extracting the chrySTALLINE, he is a little too severe on the authors who preceded him in this branch; though his own method is not quite unexceptionable. At the same time we may add, that it is sufficiently safe, and generally certain.

An Account of Experiments made to determine the Temperature

perature of the Earth's Surface in the Kingdom of Ireland in the Year 1788. By the Rev. William Hamilton, F. T. C. D. and M. R. I. A.—The mean temperature of the sea-coast, from north to south, is from 48° to $51^{\circ} \frac{1}{2}$, making a difference of about one degree of the thermometer for every degree of latitude. The medium temperature, at the height of 206 feet, the highest ground of the '*general surface*' of Ireland, is about 48° . In Londonderry the mean is 48° ; in Dublin 51° ; in Cork 53° . From this view, Ireland seems hotter than England. On the surface, our author remarks, the diurnal variations of temperature are observed; at the depth of 30 or 40 feet, the monthly variations only; and, at 70 or 80 feet, the annual variations are alone sensible.

Observations on Coal-Mines. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. M. R. I. A. and F. R. S.—As ores of different kinds are now carefully sought after in Ireland, coal becomes necessary to render the mines productive. Mr. Kirwan has therefore collected the different circumstances which make the existence of coal probable, shows that it is chiefly to be sought after in the secondary hills; and gives an account of the strata which lie over the coal in different places, both in these islands and on the continent. The information is useful, but not particularly new.

Observations on the Properties commonly attributed by Medical Writers to Human Milk, on the Changes it undergoes in Digestion, and the Diseases supposed to originate from this Source in Infancy. By Joseph Clarke, M. D. M. R. I. A.—Our author quite overturns the whole system of children's diseases, and our opinions respecting milk. He shows from experiment, that the human milk contains scarcely any coagulable matter; that it cannot be coagulated by the usual additions, nor even by an infusion of a child's stomach; that the apparent curds, vomited by children, is the cream, which is often separated in the stomach, as it is, like the cream, of a different colour soon after delivery, and when the colostrum ceases to flow; that the green colour of children's evacuations is not owing to an acid. All these positions are supported by great probability; but we have seen them, or we think we have seen them, contradicted by the appearance of diseases and the effects of medicines. Our author's abilities and attention are too considerable in our eyes to induce us to suspect that he has been led away by a hasty system; and we cannot, on the other hand, easily give up opinions apparently well supported. We must leave the subject then to future examination.

Eclipse of the Sun, observed June the 3d. 1788, by the Rev. Dr. Ussher and others. Communicated by the Rev. Henry

Henry Usher, D. D. F. R. S. and M. R. I. A.—The beginning was at $19^h 3' 42'' 7$; the end at $20^h 25' 38'' 8$. A distortion and discolouration of the spots, as the moon's limb approached them, was observed at a distance too great to be accounted for by the inflection of light, and seemingly owing to a lunar atmosphere.

An Account of an Aurora Borealis seen in full Sunshine. By the Rev. Henry Usher, D. D. F. R. S. and M. R. I. A.—The tremulous motion of the stars, the usual effect of an aurora, was observed in the day-time, subsequent to a very bright aurora borealis in the preceding night. Light white coruscating clouds were also observed in the usual place, the pole of the dipping needle: it is probable, therefore, that these streams also occur in the day. If, according to Mr. Kirwan's supposition, this phænomenon results from the inflammation of inflammable air, our author supposes the unsteadiness may be owing to the water deposited forming vesicular vapour. As inflammable air seems also sometimes to contain iron, the unsteadiness of the needle at this time may be owing to its deposition. The highest point of the luminous arch preceding (and we may add following) the coruscations, is indeed always in the magnetic meridian. But these are conjectures, perhaps reveries. It is more remarkable that, in the list of aurora borealis, collected by M. Mairan, there is a chasm about the middle of the last century of about forty years, nearly in the middle of which the variation of the needle at Paris was 0. As this appearance seemed to diminish with an eastern variation, it increases with a western.

The Papers on Polite Literature and Antiquities must be the subject of another Article.

(To be continued.)

Memoirs of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester.
Vol. III. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Cadell. 1790.

THE Manchester Society continues its instructive and agreeable meetings; and the papers offered, as we had occasion to remark in our examination of the former volumes, are rather calculated to produce interesting conversation, than to add greatly to the stock of science. In this volume, however, we perceive many judicious remarks and some truly important essays.

The duty designed to be imposed on the cotton of Manchester and the neighbouring manufactories, led Dr. Percival to the Inquiry into the Principles and Limits of Taxation, as a branch

branch of moral and political philosophy. It is not a subject wholly untouched, and if our author has not greatly added to it, he has cleared away some of the impediments, and presented the whole in a pleasing form. The obligation to pay taxes results, he thinks, from allegiance due to the sovereign power for protection. It is a voluntary compact made by our representatives, and to evade the tax, is an indirect invasion of our neighbours' property, who must supply the deficiencies. But in order to give the tax full and complete validity, 'it should be a levy made on the community by *lawful authority*, according to the *prescribed forms*; in an *equitable mode and proportion*, and *for the public weal*.' In these more enlightened times, we think the definition of a tax might have been more short, and it might be styled the voluntary contribution of the nation apportioned by the executive power, to be employed by that power for the welfare of the whole. Dr. Percival, in the latter part of his essay, adds some observations on excessive, irregular, or too inconsiderable taxes. Some imposts are supposed to be necessary in the political body, as some means of giving an artificial tension are necessary to the natural body, to enable it to make considerable exertions. He mentions the effects of the imposts of the Sforzas on the manufactures of the Piedmontese; and in our own kingdom, the heavy duties on unwrought glass have occasioned the exertions of our artists in cutting and polishing it. In these arts we have long since had no rivals; and in general, where duties increase the efforts of ingenuity and labour, so as to make a given quantity of rude materials of greater value, they will add to, rather than diminish, the prosperity of a state. The taxes on articles of necessity should be no more than sufficient to excite continued industry; and the excise, we think with our author, is inconsistent with the spirit of the constitution and the liberties of an Englishman.

Dr. Ferriar's Essay on Popular Illusions, and particularly Medical Demonology, is a very entertaining one. It shows how far in the darker ages superstition and terror could give to airy nothings embodied forms and 'local habitations.' On the whole, it is a sufficiently complete history of the eccentric wanderings of the human mind, so far as regards the subjects mentioned; but as we cannot abridge an history of detached facts, we shall select a specimen of some curiosity.

'The present advanced period of the eighteenth century has produced a learned, an elegant, and what is still more, a fashionable theorist, in support of the doctrine of apparitions; and this subject is perhaps to owe more to the present than to the former Lavater of Zurich. This writer, generally interesting and instructive,

structive, often enthusiastic, but always amiable, may possibly give a turn to the fortune of an opinion which most persons are rather anxious to destroy than able to confute. M. Lavater applies in some measure the doctrine of the transimission of spirits to the theory of spectral phenomena. L'Imagination, says he, excitée par les desirs de l'amour, ou echauffé par telle autre passion bien vive, opere dans des lieux et des temps éloignés. This is exactly the doctrine of Fienus, lord Verulam, and other sympathetic philosophers of the last century. But Mr. Lavater has applied this position in a manner, I think, entirely new, in supposing that the imagination of a sick or dying person, who longs to behold some absent friend or relation, acts on the mind of this absent person so strongly, as to produce an idea of the presence of the sick or dying man. This will appear more clearly and more advantageously in his own words. Un malade, un mourant, ou quelqu'un qui se trouve dans un peril imminent, soupire apres son ami absent, apres son frere, ses parens, son epouse : ceux-ci ignorent sa maladie, ses dangers ; ils ne pensent point a lui dans ce moment. Le Mourant, entraîné par l'ardeur de son imagination, perce a travers les murs, franchit les espaces, & aparait dans sa situation actuelle—en d'autres termes, il donne des signes de sa presence qui approchent de la realité. Une telle apparition est elle corporelle ? rien moins que cela. Le malade, le mourant languit dans son lit, & son ami vogue peutetre, en pleine santé, sur une mer agitée : la presence réelle devient par consequent impossible. Qu'est-ce donc qui produit cette espece de manifestation ? Quelle est la cause qui agit dans l'éloignement de l'un, sur les sens, sur la faculté visuelle de l'autre ? C'est l'imagination—l'imagination eperdue d'amour & de desir—Concentrée, pour ainsi dire, dans le foyer de la passion. This hypothesis would explain other pretended appearances ; the effects of an evil eye, the curses of a longing woman, and the success of the operations with waxen figures ; but I do not see how it explains the apparitions of the dead, (for death terminates all bodily affections, ultra, neque curæ neque gaudio locum)—without having recourse to the other theories already mentioned. But if it be allowed that the imagination of another can produce so wonderful an impression on the mind, how much more easy is it to conceive a man's own imagination imposing delusions on him ? There are many moments when the operations of fancy are extremely fallacious in healthy men ; and in nervous diseases, where the patient appears but little altered in the strength of his faculties, there is much transient delirium and much false imagination. When the fancy is once set in motion, old impressions generally revive, and those of friends and relations rush upon us ; the caprices of association in some persons are unaccountable, and many may cry out with the poet, *delirando io vivo.*

Mr. Bennet's Observations on Attraction and Repulsion,
and

and the waving motion observed in vibrating a glass jointly filled with oil and water, are ingenious. The latter is not so much owing to the difference of specific gravity of the fluids, as to the upper part of the water being farther distant from the centre of motion, and consequently having a greater centrifugal force. The experiment will succeed with water alone; but with two fluids the phenomena seem to be more conspicuous. The explanation of the attraction and repulsion of cork balls, either as both are dry, or as one is wet, our author attributes to the attraction of the intervening fluid, for a dry ball depresses the water, and round a wet one it is raised: in general, Mr. Bennet seems to think every condensation effected by the escape of an intervening fluid passing through the glass which holds the condensed fluid; for there are many which glass will not contain.

In an essay not immediately following the article of Mr. Bennet, Mr. Banks, a lecturer in natural philosophy, attempts to explain the same phenomena pretty nearly on the same principles, the difference of pressure in consequence of the ball pressing on the water, and the side of the vessel attracting the water. Mr. Bennet employs the language of attraction in the fluid, but as action and reaction are equal, the variation is not very considerable. The explanation of each author is far from being very clear or explicit.

The Essay on the Dramatic Character of Massinger is a very entertaining one. In the dramatic scale, Massinger comes near to Shakspeare. The genius of Fletcher seems occasionally more various, but his language is scarcely more rich, exuberant, or poetical. In invention there is no great superiority in the associate of Beaumont. Each, however, succeeded Shakspeare, and their torches were lighted at his poetic fire. Our author expatiates at some length on the merits of Massinger, and has carefully kept his faults from view. Ben Jonson excelled Massinger only in comedy.

From the Observations of Mr. Henry on the Bills of Mortality of Manchester and Salford, (two townships included in the common appellation of Manchester) the population appears gradually increasing, and he thinks that the number cannot be less, at present, than 55000. His multiplier, from the number of births, is $26\frac{1}{2}$, and from the deaths $30\frac{1}{2}$. It is probable, from the other facts mentioned in this paper, that the latter should be at least $32\frac{1}{2}$.

In Mr. T. Henry junior's Conjectures relative to the Cause of the Increase of Weight acquired by some heated Bodies when cooling, the experiments of M. Buffon, Dr. Roebuck, and Mr. Whitehurst, are mentioned. In Buffon's experiment, the mass of iron which was near fifty pounds, probably from its heat, expanded and lengthened the end of the beam under which it

was. This, or some other cause of fallacy, probably occurred, since the increase of weight in other experiments is during the cooling, evidently from air absorbed in consequence of some degree of calcination.

Mr. Henry next relates an instance, where in advanced age a person became short-sighted, evidently from reading small print in an unfavourable light. A cause of this kind may undoubtedly produce the effect at any period of life.

Dr. Rush gives us an interesting and pleasing picture of the Progress of Population in Pennsylvania. 'The first settler may perhaps kill the trees, and build a hut to shelter him from the weather; without principle or reflection, when pressed on by neighbours, compelled to defend his crops by hedges, or to contribute to the support of civil government or religion, he flies farther into the woods, and begins his labour again to avoid restraint. The second settler on this farm proceeds farther, adds to the comforts and conveniencies of it, increases the number of the productions, but seldom completes his work. The third settler forms the solid substantial farmer, the sinew of the state, its best ornament and defence. The migration of the first unreflecting settlers is generally to the south, where labour is less and provisions more easily acquired.

The essay which follows is by Dr. Percival, on the Operation of Medicines; but we noticed it in our examination of the last edition of his Essays.—Dr. Ferriar's article 'on the Vital Principle' is an elaborate one. He contends that there is no distinct principle of life, independent of organization and nervous power on the one hand, or of a soul, if an immaterial principle be admitted, on the other. The history of opinions on this subject is curious and accurate; and in the conclusion Dr. Ferriar seems to be correct. Indeed, when authors speak of life, if they distinguish it from nervous excitement, or to come nearer, from irritability, they are generally confused and often contradictory. Our author is in a little error, when he supposes that there is no nervous energy distinct from the brain. In many instances, there is probably an energy in separate nerves, particularly when any cineritious substance is observable in them, or in any of their larger trunks.

Mr. Roscoe's Essay on the comparative Excellence of the Sciences and Arts, is of no very great importance. The knowledge of our duty, and the various moral obligations arising from a due consideration of our different connections, forms the first class: natural philosophy, including metaphysics, the second only: works of taste the third. If metaphysics had been in the first class, we think he would not have erred so much as to distinguish the moral sense, the rational faculty, and the sentimental faculty, as different: they are only different, as employing

ploying the same exertions of the mind, perception, and judgment, on dissimilar subjects.

The Cretins of the Vallais are a short deformed race, whose understanding is very limited, whose constitutions are weak, and lives short. They inhabit a spot in the neighbourhood of the Alps, exposed to the exhalations of the Rhone, and to the reverberated heat from the mountains: that their situation is the cause of this mental and corporeal imbecility, is probably from those who remove to the spot experiencing a similar change, and those who are taken away recovering some degree of understanding. The Cretins are evidently degenerated men, as the Albinos and the Dondos of Africa and America, and the Kakerlaks of Asia. It will probably be in vain, therefore, to remove the defect, but by altering the manners, and if possible their situation.

Mr. Hey's Description of the Eye of a Seal is worth transcribing, in some of its most essential particulars.

• The form of the eye, when deprived of the adipose membrane and muscles (in which state I received it) was quite globular, measuring three inches and three quarters in circumference.

• The sclerotis was rather thinner than that of a sheep; but diminished gradually, as is usual, from the posterior part of the eye, to its junction with the ciliary ligament. From the great breadth of the ciliary ligament, which measured a quarter of an inch, the thinnest part of the sclerotis was not contiguous to the cornea, as in the human and sheep's eye, but surrounded the middle of the eye. So that the outer membrane, or coat, grew first gradually thinner, to the middle of the eye, and then became suddenly thick, continuing so to its junction with the cornea.

• The cornea was horizontally oblong, the vertical diameter being about .75 of an inch, while the horizontal was .85; so that the horizontal diameter exceeded the vertical by one-tenth of an inch.

• The choroid coat adhered very firmly to the sclerotis. It was black on its posterior surface, but grey on its anterior.

• The iris was black on both its surfaces, and was evidently a continuation of the choroides. The pupil was remarkably small, forming an aperture no larger than might be made by the puncture of a middle-sized pin. The figure of the pupil, before the iris had been touched, was that of an equilateral triangle.

• The crystalline humour was nearly spherical; if there were any deviation from a sphere, it was by approaching to the figure of an oblate spheroid. The ciliary processes were attached to the equatorial part of the crystalline humour, if I may be allowed the expression.

• At

‘ At first sight, the optic nerve seemed to be inserted in the axis of the pupil; but, upon making a longitudinal incision through the nerve, quite down to the retina, I found that its insertion was on the inner side of that axis, as in other animals. The substance which surrounded the optic nerve was fibrous, and spreading itself out every way as it approached the sclerotic, was continued into the substance of that coat. Indeed, the sclerotic seemed to be formed by the fibrous substance which accompanied the optic nerve; only, after this substance had diverged a little way from the nerve, it became compact, as the sclerotic coat usually is. The optic nerve was somewhat enlarged as it passed through the sclerotic, and was again contracted in its passage through the choroides. In the former part, the diameter of the nerve was .08 of an inch; in the latter .06.

‘ Upon measuring carefully the different arcs of the circumference of the eye, taken from the optic nerve to the center of the pupil, it was found that the nerve was placed at the distance of .11 of an inch from the axis of the pupil. And as the axis of the pupil must be in the center of that area on which the picture is formed, the diameter of the area on which a picture may be formed in the eye of a seal is .22, or nearly a quarter of an inch, of the retina, excluding the breadth of the optic nerve.’

If the retina, at the insertion of the optic nerve, be insensible, its smallness will not greatly impede the distinctness of the object.

Dr. Falconer’s Observations on the Knowledge of the Ancients respecting Electricity, are very curious: two facts we may particularly mention. He remarks and transcribes the passage from Scribonius Largus, that the torpedo was employed by the ancients for the pain of the head and the gout. He renders it probable also, from the suggestion of an ingenious and learned gentleman, that Numa, in consequence of some accident, was acquainted with the influence of metallic points for drawing down the electricity of the clouds; and Tullus Hostilius imitating it imperfectly, or from the violence of the storm, was killed. The passages in support of this opinion are in Diodor. Sicul. lib. v. p. 219. Rhodomanni. Plin. lib. ii. cap. 53. Ovid. Fastor. lib. iii. 327. Liv. lib. i. cap. 31. Dionys. Halicarnass. p. 176. ed. Sylburgi. These authorities are extracted from Dr. Falconer’s Paper. We have not been able to examine them.

Mr. Barrit describes some supposed Druidical Remains near Halifax in Yorkshire. They appear, however, to be natural objects, though, as we formerly observed, the Druids may have taken advantage of remarkable natural appearances to impress their own superstitions more deeply. The whole of the con-

nection of these rocks with the Druids is imaginary. There is scarcely in any county any pure water not famous for sore eyes, without the influence of Druidical superstition.

The Ancient Monument in Huhn Abbey, described by Dr. Ferriar, is, probably as he says, that of De Vescy, lord of Alnwick. If the plate is, however, accurately copied, does not Dr. Ferriar see that the outward circle is a rude representation of the flat part of the wheel on which it runs, by a person who had no knowledge of perspective?

Mr. Sharp's Essay on the Nature and Utility of Eloquence, contains not only an accurate discrimination of eloquence, but in some measure a defence of it; on the whole a pleasing and ingenious one.

Dr. Rotheram next considers some properties of a Geometrical Series, explained in the solution of a problem formerly thought indeterminate, viz. the sum of $x + xr + xr^2 + xr^3 + \dots + x r^n - 1$.

Mr. Wood's explanation of Halô's is a geometrical investigation, on the principles of Newton, and he finds the phenomena explicable on the Newtonian System.

Mr. Henry's very ingenious and elaborate Paper on the Art of Dying, is divided into three parts. These contain some observations on the nature of wool, silk, and cotton, as the objects of the dyers' art, the different preparations either for imparting or fixing the colour, with remarks on the theory, particularly exemplified in the explanation of the Turkey red. We had occasion in our LXIXth volume, p. 396, to give some general observations on the theory of dying; and the great difference in the opinions of our author consists in his still, in some degree, adhering to the doctrine of the colouring-matter being fixed in the pores of the dyed substance. From the various appearances, we think a superficial solution of the wool, cotton, or silk, takes place, and the transparent particles are fixed on the white body by means of this operation. Mr. Henry comes very near this opinion when he speaks of the attraction of the body dyed to the colouring particles; but on this subject he is not sufficiently explicit. In the explanation of the French term, *mordants*, he is not, we suspect, very correct. We have understood the term not to mean bases in general, but that fluid which fixes the colouring particles on the body, and particularly in the cotton and callico-printing gives a lasting colour to the fluid with which the pattern is impressed, and which, when impressed, leaves scarcely an apparent vestige. In the time of our studies in the print-field, the substances were said to *bite in* the colour; but the language and the customs may be now altered. In general, this paper contains several valuable observations on the process of dying, and many important chemical researches.

March, 1791.

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Mr.

Mr. Cooper's 'Observations respecting the History of Physiognomy' follow, in which this ingenious author traces the progress of the science, or rather the pretensions to the art, from the time of Aristotle to that of Lavater. From 'all such reading as was never read,' he adduces different remarks and facts of importance, and considers physiognomy in its most extensive sense, which we explained in our review of Lavater, viz. the judging of internal qualities from external form; but this sense renders the science too intricate, and includes many other acquisitions. The judicious physiognomist will do well to contract it. In the Appendix, our author shows the connection of physiognomy with the doctrine of signatures, with astrology, and other occult sciences.

The Glory described by Dr. Haygarth, was a kind of halo in a luminous cloud, which reflected the author's shadow. This luminous cloud was, according to the account before us, a fog, or a mass of vesicular vapour, in part condensed by cold. This gave it substance enough to reflect the shadow, and to refract the rays of light which fell on it obliquely round the head, in the appearance of concentric luminous circles.

Mr. Willis communicates some Experiments, in which he has fused Platina. The metal must be purified and put on a bed of charcoal in a small crucible. Various minute circumstances must be attended to, to ensure the success, which was not, on the whole, considerable. The fusion was almost always imperfect, and some variations not yet sufficiently ascertained, seemed sometimes to prevent it.

Mr. Cooper's Propositions respecting the Foundation of Civil Government, are only the present fashionable doctrines in an accurate comprehensive form. We are much pleased with the clearness and precision with which these doctrines are delivered, without being able always to join in the opinions of the author.

This gentleman's Essay on the Art of Painting among the Ancients displays much learning, judgment, and taste. If this volume could have been considered more closely, we should have given an extensive analysis of the Paper before us. It is improper to pay a disproportionate share of attention to it, and there is the same impediment to our enlarging on this Essay which prevented us from analysing the others more minutely, viz. that it is a collection of facts from other writers. Mr. Cooper begins with opposing those authors who supposed the ancients used only four colours. The painters who preceded Cicero and Pliny, and were in their estimation, ancients, probably used no others, and to this was owing the chasteness of their colouring; but the painters nearer to the period of the authors quoted, certainly used more than four, as Mr. Cooper has

has clearly shown. Correctness of outline, or more generally, design, the ancient painters seem to have been well acquainted with; and from Pliny it appears, that they understood the method of foreshortening their figures. In expression also they seem to have been skilled. The veil was thrown over the countenance of Agamemnon, in Mr. Cooper's opinion, not from the inability of the artist, but chiefly because the 'king of men' was thus represented by Euripides. Other arguments in defence of Timanthus are also adduced, but we shall step on to our author's conclusion respecting the comparative merit of ancient and modern painters.

• Upon the whole therefore, I think; with respect to colouring, as employed upon *single figures*, that as the ancients were fully as competent to judge of excellence herein as the moderns; as the expressions of the ancient connoisseurs are very warm in praise of the colouring of many of their painters; as they appear also to have attended very much to the art of colouring; and moreover, as probable evidence will be adduced that they attended to miniature painting, a considerable degree of merit may be allowed them in the use of the colours they possessed.

• The duration of the art among the ancients and moderns seems nearly equal: in number, the modern artists I think are superior. Some advantage however, both in the preparation and the number of the modern colours, and (perhaps *) the introduction of oil painting may possibly have enabled the moderns to excel their predecessors in some small degree; but I think the evidence will not permit us to rate that superiority very high. With respect to colouring, *as a whole*, and independent of the other parts of the picture, it seems probable that the ancients did understand the effect of it: but we have not sufficient reason to conclude that they attended so distinctly to this branch of the art, or attained to the same degree of perfection in the practice of it, as many of the moderns have done. It must, however, be observed, that we can judge of the merit of the ancient painters from two species of evidence alone, *viz. discovered antiques*, and *expressions in the works of ancient authors*, both of which are extremely defective: it is allowed by every skilful person who has viewed the remains of ancient paintings, that none of them seem to be the performances of superior artists, notwithstanding much merit in the design and accu-

* * The ancient colours in fresque seem to stand better than the modern oil colours. Plutarch, in his life of Aristides, mentions the paintings in the temple of Minerva, which in his time (between five and six hundred years afterwards) retained their full lustre. Montfaucon, in a passage already noticed, mentions the colours of an ancient cieling, painted in fresque, which continued *en grande vivacité*. So also does the grand painting in fresque of the battle between Constantine and Maxentius, designed by Raphael, and painted by Julio Romano.

racy in the drawing, which indeed seems to have been habitual to almost every ancient artist. The best among these paintings (according to sir Joshua Reynolds) "the supposed marriage in the Aldrobandine palace," is evidently far short of that degree of excellence undoubtedly implied in the descriptions of ancient authors, and which from them we are fairly led to expect.

Still more defective, if possible, is this last species of evidence: for we have no direct treatise remaining on the subject by any of the ancients, although many were composed by their artists. The passages from which we are to decide, are either the cursory remarks of writers not expressly treating on the subject of painting, or the descriptions of those who, at best, can rank but as amateurs of a fashionable art. From these indeed we may pretty safely assert the degree of excellence which the passages imply, but we should reason very inconclusively were we to deny them any higher or any other merit than appears to be strictly contained in these scattered observations. Let any one for a moment place the modern painters in his mind, in the same situation as the ancients, and he will quickly decide on the truth of these remarks.'

'I think sir Joshua Reynolds rates the merit of the ancient artists whose paintings remain, somewhat too high in the scale of comparison. Nor do the accounts of the places where these paintings have been found, warrant the supposition that they were thus ornamented at any considerable expence public or private. The generality of them consist of single figures; some of them of two or three figures, generally relieved by an uniform ground; and, except in (comparatively) a few instances (such as the Aldrobandine Marriage, the Sacrifice, the Nymphæa, and a few paltry landscapes) evidently designed as mere reliefs to a compartment, and answering, as near as may be, the stuccoed ornaments in our modern rooms. Nor do any of them seem the works of artists equal in their day to those at present employed on the painted cielings of private houses.

'That some technical knowledge of the effect producible by masses of light and shade was possessed by the ancients, appears to me indubitable from the passages adduced; to what extent it was carried cannot now be ascertained. In all probability they were much inferior in this respect to the moderns; otherwise, although much science of this kind could hardly be expected from the trifling performances that remain, much more would have occurred on the subject, more largely dwelt on and more precisely expressed, among the observations of ancient authors on the best paintings of the ancient masters.'

In the composition of a picture, Mr. Cooper thinks the ancients not very eminent; in the costume their improbabilities and absurdities

furdities were numerous ; and in this respect he reprehends also many of the moderns. Our remarks on sir Joshua Reynolds' picture of Mrs. Siddons, as the Tragic Muse, we are well pleased to see confirmed by a connoisseur of Mr. Cooper's taste and judgment. Perspective the ancients were certainly acquainted with, though they seem not always to have attended to it. Their scenes, which in the lower empire *only* we believe were moveable, we may suppose to have been generally painted with some regard to this art. In landscapes they were probably deficient, and of comic paintings few examples remain. Mr. Cooper concludes with some remarks on the different modes of painting employed by the artists of antiquity, and some little notice of the amateurs or gentlemen-painters, who were not professional artists.

The aerated barytes is found, we perceive from Mr. Watt's account, in Anglezark Mine, in Lancashire, not on Alston Moor, as Dr. Withering supposed. It is the matrix of a vein of galena, or blue lead ore, mixed as usual, with black jack and martial pyrites. Aerated barytes was probably long since known in that country. It is perhaps the spar mentioned by Dr. Leigh, and was then, as well as since, used to kill rats. This poisonous quality was supposed to be owing to a mixture of arsenic, but the same author, Mr. Watt, junior, found it, when pure, very poisonous to animals. It seems to act like the metallic poisons. This quality, and the solubility of aerated barytes in water, ought to be carefully examined, since the earth, if it can be easily procured, may be very beneficial in many arts. When native the air cannot be wholly expelled by any heat, and that, which it loses, is soon again recovered from the atmosphere. When precipitated from muriatic acid by a mild alkali, the air, which it then holds, can be easily separated by heat.

We have mentioned in this cursory manner the subjects of all the articles contained in this volume. It is much more valuable than the former ones ; and as the essays are well calculated to suggest interesting and entertaining topics of discourse, so the philosopher, the chemist, and antiquary, will find it a very amusing and instructive companion.

The History of the Reign of Henry II. and of Richard and John, his Sons ; with the Events of the Period, from 1154 to 1216.
By the Rev. J. Berington. (Concluded from Vol. LXX. p. 502.)

IF we have differed from Mr. Berington it was from conviction, in consequence perhaps of viewing the same facts with different eyes, or drawing from sources which relate them with different colourings. Habits, education, and political

views may have contributed to diversify our opinions and conclusions: we wish only to say, that we do not wantonly and without apparent reason differ from an author who has in various publications afforded us instruction and entertainment. In our former articles, we trust that we have shown that our opposition to Mr. Berington is not merely the consequence of those meaner motives, of which neither author nor critic could, without a blush, own the influence.

We have more than once had occasion to mention the character of our first Richard, and to wish that he had found an impartial historian. From our researches into the historical records of the East, as well as our own country, we had formed a high opinion of his talents as a politician, a warrior, and legislator; nor is it without regret, that we see his abilities in the last character so slightly noticed by Mr. Berington. The laws of Oleron, the foundation of all the European naval codes of the present moment, ought not to have been overlooked by the historian of Richard, and the author of these laws should not have been stigmatised as the savage warrior. While we are on this subject let us anticipate a little the narrative, and introduce a work which was within the reach of the historian: we mean the Life of Salah'addin, by Bahao'ddin, translated into Latin by Schultens. It is a work, so far as regards Richard's conduct in Palestine, of considerable authority, since Bahao'ddin was occasionally an ambassador from the sultan to the king of England, and seems to have occasionally derived much information from Al-Malec Al-Adel, the sultan's brother. Though he styles Richard the 'accursed,' on account of the massacre of Moslem prisoners, after the siege of Ptolemais, he afterwards admits that the crescent had never a *more politic*, or a more warlike enemy. It may be worth while also to transcribe the answer of a Turk, reported by Winisauf, who followed Richard to Palestine, though we must allow that the authority is not equal to that of the Arabian historian; yet they support each other. After the battle of Joppa, Saladin was deriding and reproaching those Mussulmen who had undertaken to capture Richard, on account of their ill success, when a Turk from a distant district replied, 'Truly, sire, this king whom you are talking of is not like other men; for these ages we have not heard of so firm, so well approved, so experienced a soldier: he is the first in every disquisition, singularly famous in negotiation, the foremost in an attack, and the last in a retreat. We might anxiously endeavour to capture him without success, since no one can with impunity sustain the horrible, the fatal, the almost supernatural power of his sword.' Indeed we need not have gone beyond Mr. Berington's

ten's history for some examples of Richard's abilities in negotiation. The firm attachment of his friends and of the English nation, in his worst misfortune, seem to show that it was more than the fascination of military abilities which attracted them. Yet Richard seems, in some instances, to have been superstitious; and this, with an occasional savage ferocity, and an ignorance or disregard of the constitution of his kingdom, a subject then scarcely thought of, was the fault of the monarch whose conduct we are now to consider. His unconstitutional proceedings must, however, have been flagrant even in that æra, to disgust the venerable Raynulphe de Glanville.

Coming early to the throne, with an active mind, very extensive power, and no inconsiderable treasure, the East was alone open to his military prowess. The first event of his reign was the disastrous massacre of the Jews; but it ought to have been *more pointedly* remarked, that it was owing in part to their obstinacy, and in part to accident. It was not the fault of Richard, who endeavoured to check the tumult, and to punish the offenders, if its force and the murderers had not been too powerful. The intention of punishment, if it had been practicable, is particularly mentioned by Walter of Hemmingford.

His preparations for the crusade were marked by impetuosity, by oppression, and perhaps by a little deceit; for the royal demesnes, so improvidently sold, his subsequent conduct leads us to think, were intended to be resumed. His sale of the northern counties to the Scottish monarch appears to have been truly political, as by that means every cause of war on the northern frontier was prevented; and the event justified the measure, as the tranquillity of England was not once interrupted by William during his absence. In short, rash, hasty, and improper as his conduct appears at first, our views will be greatly altered after a little reflection.

The same impetuosity seems to have distinguished his conduct in Sicily and Cyprus. The events, however, were strongly in favour of his military character, and we think of his policy. In Palestine we have seen him the terror of the Saracens, as much by his political conduct as by his spirit and enterprize. The siege of Ptolemais, in the Arabian work before quoted, is not less interesting than that of Malta, though debased by greater cruelties. The slaughter of 2700 Turks can scarcely be defended even on the inhuman principles of war in that æra. Richard, in his letters, boasts of it; and Mr. Berington, from the letters and the accounts of Hoveden, excuses it on the foundation of Saladin having first broken the terms, Bahao'ddin, though he seems to allow that some of the nobles

to be exchanged were not to be found, inveighs against the cruelty of the 'accursed' Richard, since, he says, all the lives were to be spared without any condition; yet, in the terms he himself records, it is said that they were only to march out alive on the conditions mentioned. Winisfauf endeavours to save Richard's character by the following clause, *coactio consilio majorum in populo*.

The other events of Richard's reign are not related very differently from the accounts of the best historians; but even the anecdotes interspersed, show Richard's judgment, generosity, policy, and placability. See p. 411, 416, 422, and 427. If the reader, with the work in his hand, will look at these passages, he will not admire the consistency of the historian in the concluding character of this monarch. In the following observation every impartial enquirer will agree: it was in a future reign that the constitution began to assume a regular form.

'One certain document we collect from the history of this reign, which is, that the government of England was most unsettled; and that the forms of a council, or a species of representation, to which Henry seemed often to refer himself, originated from his own politic and prudential views, and not from a supposed order which legislation had established. As they arose, it was my aim to mark such circumstances as could help to develop the growing features of our government. The word *parliament* I studiously avoided. It occurs, I think, in one ancient author, who writes on the events of this period; but he lived posterior to the times.'

The popularity of Richard survived him, and the gloom with which the barons received John, is not so inexplicable as our author seems to represent it. He had acted with the basest ingratitude to his brother and benefactor; to their monarch, whom they regarded almost with adoration. Above all, there was a nearer heir, according to the system of those times, Arthur, the son of Godfrey, who was looked up to as the guardian angel of the realm, and the institutor of future orders of chivalry. John was known to be rash, weak, impetuous, and inconsistent. Arthur was yet unknown; but the popularity, which always follows the youthful prince, already rendered him the object of respect, as possessed of every quality with which their fond hopes could decorate him. This was the cause why a semblance of an election was held forth, if indeed it was so; and for these reasons the barons with thoughtful anxiety repaired their castles and cleansed the ditches, expecting the reign of Stephen to be renewed.

The first steps of John added to their apprehensions: he resigned,

signed, or at least did not refuse to resign Northumberland and Cumberland to William, satisfied with an empty unmeaning homage; and to Philip, probably as the price of his neutrality in Arthur's cause, his concessions were equally valuable and important. Philip, however, a politic prince, could not long be retained by treaties from seizing what would be advantageous to him. The barons of Poitou were in arms, and Arthur's cause was at least popular, and might be the source of acquisition to himself. He invested him therefore with the duchy of Bretagne, the earldoms of Poitou and Anjou. In attempting to acquire possession of his right he was taken prisoner, and no more heard of. The page of Shakspeare has consecrated his name, and rendered the theme an interesting one. The poet, it is said, succeeds best in fiction, and it is highly probable that the dramatic events are fictitious. Arthur was certainly murdered, but perhaps without any previous cruelties. The annals of Bretagne say, that he was stabbed and thrown over a steep cliff into the sea.

The cause of Arthur was supported by Philip, the Bretons, and the disaffected nobles of Poitou. John's foreign possessions were wasted, or seized, when Innocent, the most able and enterprising successor of St. Peter, who with deep and refined policy, lived in a period best adapted to the exertion of his talents, interfered in the cause of the king of England. The enterprising Philip, however, found means to appease the pope, when the new crusade, the capture of Constantinople, and finally the contest respecting the appointment of Langton to the archiepiscopal see of Canterbury, gave a different direction to the views and designs of Innocent. At home the conduct of John was equally unstable and irregular. His exorbitant claims on the barons, the Scottish war hastily began, and after some few advantages as hastily left, the attack on Ireland, whose establishment was more carefully and more firmly fixed, and the desultory campaign in Wales, mark his character more clearly than the eloquence of the historian. These parts of his life, however, Mr. Berington passes over too hastily, while the contest for the imperial throne, the events of the crusade, and the intrigues of Innocent, are treated with too much diffuseness.

The measure of John's misfortunes was now full; he was excommunicated, his land was under the papal interdict: on the continent, Philip had dispossessed him of all his territories, Aquitaine only excepted. The French king had been secretly invited by the discontented barons to accept of the English throne; Innocent, yielding to political motives, willing to appear to dispose of the crown with success, had granted it to his enemy; and Philip was ready to seize the falling sceptre.

tre. But, in the moment when the blow was expected, Pandulphus offered to ward it off on John's submission; for Innocent was unwilling to render Philip more powerful, who had already resisted his mandates. The weak and impetuous John rashly consented, and resigned his crown to receive it again from the pope's legate.

So ended this memorable day, the fifteenth of the month of May.—With regard to the transaction itself, which modern writers know not how to view with decent composure, I will observe, that had themselves been eye-witnesses to it, their indignation had been less violent. With difficulty some minds divest themselves of their common habits of thought, and go back in imagination to ages which have passed away. An extraordinary power which I have sedulously traced, was then ascribed to the Roman bishop, and of more kingdoms than of Sicily he was acknowledged to be the suzerain lord. Acts of feudal homage were common, and were not attended with disgrace. We saw the king of Scotland voluntarily surrender the independence of his crown; and princes and the great barons daily transferred their fealty on the slightest provocation; and the English monarchs were in the constant habits of performing the humiliating ceremony, as to us it appears, in the hands of the kings of France. But however this may be, the surrender which John made of his crown was the authentic act of the nation, expressed in as full a manner as the most solemn deeds then were. The primate was not present, for an obvious reason, nor the archbishop of York, the son of Rosamond, who was then dead; but the archbishop of Dublin, witnessed the charter, and the bishop of Norwich, deputy of Ireland, and Fitzpeter, the justiciary of the realm of England, with other barons. The great council of the nation, as it is called, seems to have been assembled in its wonted solemnity. Such meetings, by some writers, on less important occasions, have been dignified by the appellation of *parliament*. What probably were the motives which induced the justiciary, a man of great experience as he is represented, and of consummate wisdom, to forward the extraordinary measure, I have said. Others might be variously influenced. The bishop of Norwich in particular was an enemy to Innocent, whose promotion to the see of Canterbury he had impeded. This only may be affirmed with confidence, that they preferred the measure on the best view of things, as most tending to the good of the nation; and that to their eyes it carried little of the ignominy which we have affixed to it. Pandulphus seems to have co-operated with the wishes of the prelates and barons at home, as he had with those of the exiled party; and what is remarkable, the historian who can often be severe when Rome is concerned, neither reflects on the nuncio or his proceedings; nor does he intimate that any part of the transaction

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raised the smallest opposition or gave offence, excepting in the single instance which I have mentioned,—viz. trampling some money which the king offered as the earnest of his subjection under his feet.’

From the reconciliation, and the new oath administered to John by Langton on his return, Mr. Berington dates the origin of Magna Charta. In the usual form he swore to establish good laws, but those it was added were the laws of his predecessors, and particularly the Confessor: the remaining copies of the charter of the first Henry furnished the model, and gave a stability to this seemingly general clause. These Langton produced to the barons, and the event is well known. We ought, however, to add, that our boasted charter is too full of aristocratic tyranny, and it only became of general importance by the abolition of villenage, which, by the way, lost its burthen before it lost its name. The barons, by their conduct, did not deserve the freedom which they gained: it was timid, irresolute, and pusillanimous: they at last applied to Louis, the son of Philip, for assistance, in return for which they offered him the crown. The disputes which this measure occasioned at Rome, for Innocent continued to favour John rather than Philip, are at this time curious. The barons insist on John’s having, on account of his resignation to the Roman see, and the murder of Arthur, for which he was condemned in the court of Philip, on trial by his peers, as a vassal of France, abdicated the throne, and on their right of election, though they are anxious to prove that they have not transferred the crown from the family, or passed by the next heir without urgent reasons. As far as we have been able to examine, Mr. Berington’s account of this transaction is accurate and pointed. The last event in this history is the war occasioned by the invasion of Louis, a war in which the nation suffered as much from its king as from his antagonists, and terminated, in this volume, by the death of John, a prince whom history has not embellished with many virtues, but to whom she seems to have denied the few that are due. It is not too late to observe, that while virtues, by being carried too far, sometimes border on vices, the contrary progress may be sometimes traced in the history of the human mind. Thus John’s eager impetuosity was, in some instances, a laudable activity, and his rashness assumed the semblance of, or was for a time really valour. To each of these his successes were owing, where he did succeed, and, with whatever colours historians may disgrace his concession to the see of Rome, it was at that time the only step to preserve his kingdom, perhaps his life. We mean not, however, to apologise for the measure by this suggestion;

suggestion; yet, as Mr. Berington justly observes, it ought not to be judged of but with the opinions of that period respecting the Roman power and pretensions. We have concluded this reign with more rapidity, as our historian did not furnish any new or uncommon views, and we wished for room to give his own general recapitulation. His chief authority after Hoveden had concluded, is Mathew Paris.

‘ I have finished the period of sixty-two years, which measured the reigns of Henry II. and of Richard and John, his sons, a term, in the retrospective view, of short duration, but filled with events and marked by characters.—In Henry we beheld a prince of great and splendid talents, early tutored in the school of adverse fortune, and raised, by his own prowess, to a mighty empire. The out-setting of his reign was prosperous; but an unfortunate contest with the church ensued, in which no glory could be gained, and which brought to nearer view a degrading series of affections and conduct, which, in other circumstances, might never have been exhibited. The close of it, we saw, was most unhappy; and it raised the indignation of Christendom. But the submission of Ireland relieved the gloomy aspect, which the rebellion of his sons again obscured; and in various occurrences, which too often tended to diminish the lustre of his early days, the eventful period of Henry’s reign hastened to its melancholy issue. Within himself it seemed, lay the source of every evil. For a more guarded temper would have reconciled him to the church, at that time, too dangerous a power to contend with; and more attention to Eleanor, his queen, would have chained her ardent spirit, and have secured the obedience, at least, of his children.—The men, who served near his person, or whom he employed in the concerns of state, were eminent, and well chosen. I brought them into view. Becket, of all others, from a certain similarity of character, was best qualified to have possessed his confidence; and together they had been an overmatch for secret machinations, or the bold designs of public enemies. But the very circumstance of similarity of dispositions was the cause of their disunion, and led to contests. The possession of a friend has seldom fallen to the lot of princes.—The concomitant characters of Henry’s reign were, in France, Louis, weak, honest, and brave; in Germany, Frederic, bold, imperious, and enterprising; in Italy, Alexander, whose virtues and unambitious views, in a better age, had dignified the tiara. And round these princes we saw collected many distinguished personages; and the events of their days were striking, in the exile of the Roman pontiff, in the successful struggles of the Lombards, and in the preparations for the third crusade.

‘ The reign of Richard, opening with improvident and arbitrary measures, and throughout disfigured by discontents at home, and
abroad

abroad by a lavish waste of men and treasure in the wild wars of Palestine, had nothing to engage the attention of the philosophic historian. Only that the errors of the human mind, if duly contemplated, may become a source of as much instruction, as its most steady adhesions to truth and equity. We pitied him in his captivity; but the heavy charge, which fell on an exhausted people, to ransom the worthless prisoner, soon stifled that pleasing emotion; and no event succeeded to prepare the mind for compassion; when his untimely death came on.—His ministers and the great personages of the realm deserved little praise. The truth, however, is, that the writers of the times were so engaged in relating the feats of their king, and the achievements of a ruinous expedition, that domestic characters and the events of peace were lost in the turbid stream, and died away unrecorded.—But, in France, for some years, we had beheld the growing greatness of Philip Augustus; while, by the side of Richard, whether in his own territories, or at Messina, or in Palestine, his temperate, but manly character, commanded our admiration, and defied competition.—Frederic had perished in the Salef: the Norman line of kings was at an end on the throne of Sicily: and at Rome, after a succession of five less illustrious bishops, from the death of Alexander, was seated Innocent III.

The conduct and character of John, and the events of his reign, are recent on the memory. We saw its inauspicious opening, his weak treaty with France, his ungenerous marriage of Isabella, and his vain and oppressive progress through the provinces of England. The barons shewed their discontent, when he passed into Poitou, took Arthur prisoner; and we heard the rumours which followed his death, and which was succeeded by the loss of Normandy and other possessions. Stephen Langton came forward on the scene, which gave rise to altercations between John and the pontiff. The kingdom fell under an interdict, and the rage of the king broke loose. Then opened the important contest, which, after various occurrences, led to the submission of John to the mandates of Rome, and which produced the meeting of the barons, and their confederacy. We beheld them at St. Edmundsbury, after the taking off of the interdict, and their successive proceedings, till they met on Runnemede. MAGNA CHARTA. The dark vengeance of John followed, and the preparations for war. The barons were excommunicated, the country laid waste, prince Louis invited over, landed in spite of the pontiff's injunctions, and while he besieged the castles of Windsor and Dover, John took the field, and as a gloom spread round the general aspect of things, he died.—The under actors, who chiefly claimed attention, were Stephen Langton, and the Roman Pandulphus, and the

the barons pressing forward, with a restless ardour, to the new dawn of liberty. In France, Philip had still kept the ascendant; rather he had risen higher, in competition with our inglorious monarch, and had added territories to his crown.—The brave Otho had fallen from the German throne; while from Sicily came another Frederic, who would eclipse the fame of his grandfather Barbarossa.—In the chair of the humble fisherman, was seen Innocent !'

At this period we may shortly recapitulate our opinion of this work. We have spoken freely of its errors, and shall not invidiously deny it a due share of praise.—As an historian, we have found Mr. Berington biassed by a particular opinion, and, respecting the conduct of Becket, partial. We have observed too, that he has not proportioned his labour to the importance of different parts; and that the most prominent groups in the picture are sometimes those with which the English princes or the English history have little share, while he has passed over, cursorily, some facts in which it was considerable. But Mr. Berington is in no instance tinctured by superstition. His mind is capacious and comprehensive; his judgment, if we except the parts where it is warped by the bias mentioned, solid and accurate. His language is, as usual, bold and animated. It is sometimes too abrupt, and sometimes a little obscure:—*rem variare cupit nimis prodigialiter unam*;—but in general, it is energetic, and often elegant. In his enquiries, we have seen him neglect some authors of importance to the question; but we have not seen him pervert the meaning of those whom he has quoted. On the whole, as an historian, he does not stand in the highest rank; but he will often be read with pleasure, and occasionally with information.

The subject of the second Appendix we have already noticed. The first relates to the manners of the English and Normans at the Conquest, with the progressive changes in dress, amusements, arts, sciences, religion, and political opinions. On these subjects, though our author advances nothing very new, he has brought, from remote and unexpected sources, some facts of importance, which illustrate the progress of manners, and of the arts both pleasing and necessary: few, we think, can read his Dissertation without pleasure. If we had not already intruded too long on the reader we should have extracted some passages from it: at present we must leave the historian, whom, perhaps, in his future progress, we may be able to praise with less reserve.

The Natural History of the Mineral Kingdom. In Three Parts.
By John Williams, F. & S. A. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Boards.
 Printed for the Author. Dublin. 1789.

WE lately reviewed the Philosophy of Natural History, and this work may in some degree be considered as supplemental to it. We may call it, with the author, the Philosophy of Mineralogy; but it is too minute to be popular, and too technical to interest any one but the professed mineralogist. To these it will afford much information, as the author seems well acquainted with his subject; and though he is a little too fond of some peculiar opinions, he is in general a faithful guide, on subjects where a guide was greatly wanted.

In the introduction, Mr. Williams observes with great propriety, that Britain owes as much to her metals and to her coals, as to all her other advantages. This is a position incontrovertible, and we mention it chiefly to direct the attention of our readers to a point which they may not have considered, for there is scarcely a metallic utensil or a metallic ornament, watches perhaps excepted, that is not manufactured in England with greater skill than in any other kingdom. Our author applies this fact afterwards to a circumstance which deserves the notice of our government. After mentioning the general subjects of which these volumes consist, the author proceeds to animadvert on Dr. Hutton's Theory of the Earth, in the first volume of the Edinburgh Transactions.

We have had occasion to observe, probably in reviewing that essay, that the natural historians of the earth have been too attentive to the effects of fire and of water, separately, according as their system was founded. Buffon having first vitrified the globe, employed only water to soften it: Dr. Hutton wished to cement the earth by fire, and to burst its cearments by volcanos. These philosophers, though highly respectable, had not attentively observed the different strata or the various operations of Nature. They did not see that no cement could form a mass so hard as the process of crystallization, or that in all the primæval mountains, few marks of fire, except as a cause of explosion, capable of overturning mountains, occurred. Mr. Williams is more moderate, but he does not admit of melted lava insinuating itself between the strata of rocks, or of the basaltes having ever been in a state of fusion. Of each we think there is a sufficient proof. In his estimation also of the proportion of lime-stone in this globe, we do not think that he has considered with sufficient care the vast tracks of lime-stone country in the interior parts of America. In general, his ob-
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jections to Dr. Hutton's Theory are very judicious, and particularly in that part where he shows that the land is rather gained from, than covered in a greater proportion by, the sea.

The first Essay relates to the coal-mines, and this subject is examined with much professional skill; but we should not greatly interest our readers by a description of slips, dykes, gashes, shapes, outbursts, roofs, and pavements of coal. We shall take up some more popular parts of the subject. Coal-mines are not formed in extensive strata, for the coal does not pass under any large mountain and emerge on the other side; and veins discovered by accident in ditches do not always lead to a load, or emerge on the opposite side of even secondary hills. Coal also, in our author's opinion, does not sink deep; for though some loads are left because they cannot be profitably worked at a great depth, yet many are exhausted before we arrive at that point. Coal-fields then, instead of following the general laws of other strata, are in some degree patches; but they follow a certain line, and almost a fixed boundary.

As coals are so essential to manufactories, our author thinks that we are too prodigal in exportation, and draws a frightful picture of our situation when the coals are exhausted. The picture is chiefly coloured from his own imagination, and some of his facts are not accurately stated. The tin-mines in Cornwall now raise more tin than they can dispose of; nor is the price enhanced by the dearth of coals, in consequence of their scarcity. It will be greater if the demand for the East India market is greater; but this is independent of the coals, nor are the coal-mines of South Wales nearly exhausted. If coals were to bear a very little higher price, we know many new mines of this fossil that would be worked; and if the scarcity which Mr. Williams apprehends were at all probable, mines might be opened in the neighbourhood of the many navigable canals now perfected. From appearances, the coal-works at Worley in Lancashire are almost inexhaustible; those of Wales, and on the opposite coast of Somersetshire, are greater in extent. But we are not without consolation even in this volume.

‘ As the island of Cape Breton is of considerable extent, and as there is a certainty of coal existing in the island, there is a great probability that it may prove a valuable coal-field; and, moreover, there is but a narrow strait between Cape Breton and Nova Scotia; and the latter is situated directly in the line of bearing of the strata, and, therefore, it is probable that coals may be found in the maritime parts of Nova Scotia, where it is said that they really have been seen; and it is also said that coals have been discovered in the island of Newfoundland, one or both of which places may turn out well if

if properly tried : but supposing that they should not, Cape Breton is of such considerable extent, that it promises a fund of coal equal to a very extensive exportation, and to the demands of the new world, for a long period of time, there being no room to doubt the existence of a number of seams ; and it is highly probable from what is related of them, that they are seams of a good thickness and quality.'

' I do not know that there is much coal, if any, as yet discovered within the territories of the States of America ; and, therefore, it is to be supposed, that as they gather strength, and feel more the want of coal, they will cast an evil eye upon Cape Breton, &c. and envy us the possession of an island in their neighbourhood, which seems to be a vast magazine of coals.

' Fire-wood will soon grow scarce and dear along the coasts of North America, and manufactories will soon be established there, which cannot be properly and effectually carried on without large supplies of coal ; and, therefore, we must suppose that the very sense of their wants will alone be sufficient to make a conquest of Cape Breton for the sake of our coal. Such a conquest might be accomplished and secured before we in Britain could be well apprised of the preparations for it ; but if we had flourishing and extensive collieries, and a brisk coal-trade going on there in conjunction with our fisheries, it would be more worth our while to keep the island in a more sufficient posture of defence than it is at present.'

This is a subject that requires attention even in a political view ; and there are not so many difficulties in the way of working these mines as our author suspects. The loss of Cape Breton is not to be feared, for the islands must always be at the command of the greatest naval powers.

Our author next describes the appearances which point out a stratum of coal, and some deceitful phenomena which may occasionally mislead. Among the latter we find the appearance of petroleum, or ocre. Coal, Mr. Williams supposes, is not produced from petroleum, but is petrified wood ; an opinion totally inconsistent with chemical facts, and not supported by his own experiment. This fossil is, he says, an original one, and not restored after being destroyed ; but he gives an instance in Castle Leod mine, where it is mixed with metallic matters ; a circumstance totally inconsistent with its woody nature ; and baron Born has mentioned another, where he found it among the lava of an old volcano. The practice of making coal-tar revives his apprehensions of a scarcity of coal ; but we suspect this process not sufficiently profitable to attract adventurers,

March, 1791.

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except in the neighbourhood of smelting-houses, where the coak is employed, and little tar is drawn that would not otherwise be wasted in the operation of charring.

The second part, on the Natural History of Mineral Veins, and other Beds and Repositories of Metal, contains many very valuable observations; but in language too appropriated and technical for our present purpose. Copper and iron abounds; he thinks, on the west and east coasts of Scotland. The Anglesey mine will, for a time, prevent every attempt to work copper; and if it should fail, the mines of Cornwall are still far from being exhausted: our author is misinformed when he speaks of the quantity of the ore compensating for its want of richness. It is far from being poor in many of the different mines in that county. The iron ore we could wish to see more diligently sought after, and scientifically worked. We fear, however, it will be many years before it will rival the Swedish, or even the Russia iron, in its present improved state, or be fit for any purpose besides melting.

The third part, which fills the whole of the second volume, contains the Natural History of the prevailing Strata, and of 'the principal and most interesting Phenomena upon and within the Surface of our Globe.' Our author's first object is to describe the different rocks and strata of this island, to point out which are 'regularly stratified and which of them are not, with the different degrees of stratification.' This subject is branched out in many particular descriptions and minute observations. The remarks are in general just, and show the author to be an accurate and careful enquirer. The sand of the white granite, he remarks, is probably the kaolin of the Chinese, and the pure white quartz is the petunse. In this he is not quite correct. The sand, which he describes is only the comminuted granite; before it deserves the name of kaolin, it undergoes a farther decomposition, and assumes an argillaceous appearance, when it is called the growan clay. Much of this substance is found in Cornwall and in the neighbourhood of Torbay, and it is the support of the manufactories of Staffordshire and Lancashire. These manufactories produce at present a biscuit, scarcely, if it all, inferior to that of China: they now confine the different colours with success on the hardest body, and in a few years may probably equal China in her most valued productions, while at present they excel the Chinese workmen in the beauty of their drawings, the correctness of their design, and the chastity of their colouring. Cornwall, which has greatly suffered in her sale of tin, by their improvements, draws some advantage from them by the sale of her clay, and by the coals brought by the ships which fetch it. As the materials
abound

abound in Scotland, our author thinks that potteries can be carried on there with success; but the establishments already mentioned would always be able to undersell them.

Our author's remarks on marble, and the necessity of examining the different limestone strata, to find beautiful marbles, equal or superior to foreign ones, we know to be very useful; for from competitions between workmen under our own eye, we have seen marbles and jaspers of the finest and most beautiful kinds discovered where their existence was scarcely suspected. On the subject of basaltes we apprehend our author confounds the whins and traps with columnal basaltes, which have evidently been fused: the following passages will justify our suspicion, while they contain also some curious information.

‘ I observed above, that the strata of basalts spread as wide and stretch as far in the longitudinal bearings as the other different strata that accompany them in the countries where they are found. I also observed, that the rocks of basalts are generally found in very thick strata, and that in places where no other rock is found above the basalts, the strata of it are often very unequal in thickness. But this in general is only in situations where no other rock is found above it; for when it fairly enters into the superficies of the earth, so as to have other regular strata above it, which is seen in a hundred places in the Lothians, Fife, and other parts of Scotland, it then appears pretty equal in thickness; as equal as most other beds of such great thickness are; and yet it is remarkable, that although most of the strata of basalts are of great thickness, there are frequently thin strata of various kinds found both above and below it. We have numerous examples of this in all the parts of Scotland where the basalt is found, as for instance there are thin and regular strata seen and quarried both above and below the thick bed of that rock in the Salisbury Craigs near Edinburgh.

‘ In the Bathgate hills, south of Linlithgow, and in many other parts of Scotland, there are several strata of basalts; and also several strata of coal, of limestone, freestone, and other concomitants of coal, blended promiscuously, stratum super stratum; and the basalts is frequently found immediately above, and immediately below regular strata of coal; of course, basalts is not the lava of volcanoes. We can prove to ocular demonstration, from the component parts, and from the situation, stretch, and bearing of the strata of basalts, that they are real beds of stone, coeval with all the other strata which accompany them, and are blended with them in the construction of that part of the globe where they are found, as they dip and stretch as far every way as the other strata found above and below them. So that if basalts be a volcanic production, so must all other strata be of necessity: but how volcanoes should produce coal,

and how that coal should be regularly spread immediately above and below strata of lava, is a little problematical; or rather, it is strangely absurd to imagine, that burning lava can come in contact with coal without destroying it.'

Our author's next attempt is to give the Natural History of the Superficies of our Globe, with a particular description of all the varieties which occur in strata, in order to show that water has been the principal agent in their formation. This system Mr. Williams pursues with great attention and perseverance. He endeavours to show that the Diluvian tides were far beyond the height of our present hills; that the granite and other stratified mountains were mere depositions of the heaviest matters; and the successive strata, the effects of an undulatory deposition; the inequalities proceeding from the various matters being deposited on unequal surfaces. This system, we have already observed, does not coincide with what we think are the various appearances, though it must be acknowledged, that inequalities may as well proceed from the sinking of the different strata, as on the raising of others, and the apparent upright strata may have attained that situation by the subsiding of the other extremity. There are, however, other objections, of which the different specific gravities, and a situation incompatible with these different gravities, are not the slightest. If also fire had no share in these changes, the metallic substances should at last have subsided with the materials of granite; but while silver is occasionally found entangled among the particles of quartz, it is not most commonly found there; and gold as well as other metals are discovered in a very different matrix. Gulphs and caverns are owing, in our author's opinion, to strong currents of water; and a pretty extensive investigation in a subsequent part of the work follows, to explain various appearances of this kind from different tides. This we shall not particularly examine, for many branches of philosophy, besides mineralogy, are required to solve this problem: these Mr. Williams seems to have attended to with less care. The isthmus of Suez and of Darien, he tells us, are situated nearly in the same latitude; but this coincidence is of less importance; for, in the general current of waters from the equator to the poles, the sea has often gained on the land in a northern direction; but its progress depends on the nature of the strata which it meets with.

After the enquiry into the formation of mountains, our author proceeds to consider the nature, size, quality, and figure of the larger grains. He examines some of the substances of which we find no extensive strata, and informs us, that in the destruction of the antediluvian mountains, these fragments

were probably scattered, and again incorporated in our hills, by the co-operation of water. Thus, at that time, there may have been mountains of gold; cliffs of diamonds; an extensive chain of micaceous hills, of rubies, or amethysts; beautiful perhaps in appearance, but useless and inconvenient. The cause of the deluge we shall transcribe from his recapitulation.

‘ The deluge was not brought about by producing a quantity of water sufficient to cover the earth round about, to the depth of several miles, so as to overflow the summits of the highest mountains, which appears to me impossible without a miracle, if we allow those mountains to stand firm and remain as they now are. The universal deluge was brought on and accomplished by the concurring agency of a number of second causes, all of which were prepared and ripened in the ordinary course of nature. From there being no rain in the antediluvian earth, the superficies of the strata gradually lost their cohesion, and approached to decay for want of natural and necessary moisture. An immense quantity of water was accumulated in the regions of the atmosphere, by constant evaporation from the ocean and lakes, without any returns or diminution by heavy rains, during the space of near two thousand years; but when the rain began, it continued pouring down constantly for the space of six weeks if not six months. When this constant heavy rain poured down upon the over dried and half calcined strata, the sudden access of such abundance of water naturally produced an ebullition and ferment, whereby the dislocation and destruction of the solid surface of the earth was soon completed; and by this means, the rocky shores, which were then the only mural bounds of the ocean, were decomposed, broken to pieces, and mixed with the waters of the ocean, and of the rain. When the boundaries of the ocean were thus broken to pieces, and mixed with the waters into a sort of chaos, the fluid surface was soon greatly enlarged, and thereby a much greater surface of attraction was exposed to the influence of the sun and moon, and of consequence the tides would be proportionally raised; and this natural cause and means, when joined with the constant heavy rains, and the dissolution of the superficies of the strata, would, when all united, soon overflow and destroy the whole solid surface of the globe, and produce an universal chaos or deluge.’

The new world was peopled by men and animals, he thinks, from the north eastern part of Asia, because all the animals of the old continent are those of cold climates, or which can bear heat and cold indifferently.—We have only sketched an imperfect outline of our author's system, since our readers will probably have anticipated us in concluding, that whatever merit Mr. Williams may have deserved, as a careful enquirer

and a diligent surveyor, he has lost in his more general capacity of a philosopher. Even the different minerals are often confounded.

Mr. Williams next treats of volcanos, and considers them as accidental events rather than as powerful agents in the great operations of nature. He supposes the line of volcanic fuel to lie N. N. E. and S. S. W. and, in this line, advises no cities to be built, but the husbandmen to live in tents, having acquired knowledge enough of impending dangers to escape with their lives. Our author does not consider that, if the reality of this imaginary line was once established by experience, labour would not be thrown away on so fatal a spot; for, though the farmer or shepherd may escape with their lives, they could not easily carry away their crop and their flocks. The reality of the line is, however, far from being established; and the existence of volcanic fuel is equally imaginary. Our author calls it pyrites, and thinks volcanos *lighted* by lightning at the surface; an idea equally whimsical and groundless. He speaks also of inflammable air, of petroleum, and pit-coal, as volcanic fuel, and of electricity as in some degree connected with these phenomena, but does not point out the proper offices of either of these substances. Basalt and tufa our author contends at some length, but with little success, are not volcanic productions. But, in the progress of this enquiry, and in his laudable zeal to defend the Mosaic system, he adduces an argument taken from the vitrified forts of Scotland, against the insinuations of Mr. Brydone. In the examination of these walls, he observes, the external parts were least decayed; a proof, he adds, that lavas do not decay more by exposure to the air than in their internal parts. The decay of the surface of lava in the air is too notorious to require an argument in its defence; and it is remarkable that our author, who denies the existence of volcanic matter, where it is seen, should admit it without reason. The only consequence to be drawn from the fact mentioned is, that the vitrification of these walls was not accidental, but the effect of art, and of fire applied externally.

Some curious miscellaneous observations follow. Among these it is contended again that America was peopled from the north of Asia; and that Madoc, the Welsh prince, and his wife, were the Mango Capac and the Mama Ocello of the Peruvians, wrecked on the coast of Brazils, and proceeding in a boat up the river of the Amazons. We shall only remark, that this imaginary progress is totally inconsistent with the traditions of the Peruvians, who bring their legislator from the north, and the shores of the Northern Pacific.

Another part of this miscellaneous section relates to the decay,

ray of water, and the formation of new land. The repository for the lost water is the vast masses of polar ice and snow, so that materials are accumulating for another deluge, if the obliquity of the ecliptic should increase. But, in the enquiry respecting the formation of new land, our author goes back to the time of Noah. Previous to this event he supposes, with many other authors, that there was no rain, and that the curse of God, in the sterility of the earth, was at that time peculiarly conspicuous. Noah rested after the deluge in Armenia, and thence proceeded to China, because he was a husbandman, and because husbandry has been always particularly attended to in China. The various rivers and their embouchures are next described, to show the gradual accession to the solid parts of the globe.—The volume concludes with some remarks on banking and deepening rivers. Here our author is again in his element, and his remarks are judicious and practical. In general, he displays many marks of a strong mind and a sound understanding; of a mind strengthened by accurate attention, and an understanding matured by experience. In speculative enquiries, he fails rather from not having examined the whole of the subject, than from reasoning inaccurately on what he knows. If he had kept within his own limits, we should have praised him with less reserve.

An Essay on Fevers; wherein their Theoretic Genera, Species, and various Denominations, are, from Observation and Experience, for thirty Years, in Europe, Africa, and America, and on the Intermediate Seas, reduced under their characteristic Genus, Febrile Infection; and the Cure established on Philosophical Induction. By Robert Robertson, M. D. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Robinsons, 1790.

THERE is a warmth and eagerness in our author's expressions and manner, which we cannot but reprehend, when, from partial and limited views, he insinuates that the whole mystery of fevers is revealed only to himself and a few of the enlightened physicians of the present æra. He tells us, however, that he has seen fevers in three quarters of the globe, and during a series of many years; but a slight reflection might have convinced him that the variety would have probably been greater if he had been confined to one populous city. He has, in reality, seen only the fever of ships and hospitals; and, if his observations had been professedly confined to these, we should have considered this work as an useful one in its proper line. Dr. Robertson has observed with great accuracy, and his practice is in general judicious, decisive, and active.

Fever, he remarks, is but of one kind, and he has charac-

terised it under the name of febrile infection. We shall examine each point. He observes, with great propriety, that every fever consists of distinct paroxysms, and this peculiarity unites the mildest vernal intermittent to the most malignant jail fever: yet, allowing all this, there is a difference in the appearance of the disease, there is a difference in the treatment, and the degree of infection. The inflammatory intermittent of cold climates is exasperated by the treatment which is absolutely necessary in the malignant remittent; and the bilious matter, collected, is not so easily evacuated by a single emetic and laxative as to admit of the bark in the early state, without doing much injury. These are facts which we have often seen: they occur frequently, particularly in the northern parts of this island. When this system was first published by Dr. Millar and Dr. Lettsom, we thought it an easy plan, for it superseded much examination; and we pursued it, though not in the extent recommended by these authors; thinking, that if half a drachm of bark produced disagreeable effects, double that quantity would be more injurious. In this climate, the putridity is not very often alarming, though a nervous fever, and sometimes an ulcerous sore throat, will require large doses of bark, and approach in so insidious a manner, that much experience is necessary to be able to detect the danger. We have sometimes seen them require a drachm of bark, with the warmest cordials every three hours, and have, in such instances, ordered it with the best effects. But when, in the nervous fevers, with much irritation on the brain, bark has been given, the heat has been greater and more pungent, the delirium and subsultus worse. In a case of this kind, would Dr. Robertson increase the dose of bark? or would he in general order a medicine to oppose debility, when no alarming debility existed? By such indiscriminate recommendations, much injury is done. Again, in the bilious fevers of this climate, the evacuation must be continued, and the discharge must be considerable every day. If the bark is given, the stricture in the hypochondria is increased; the tongue grows more foul and brown, delirium ensues; while the patient, in the opposite circumstances, really gains strength from the discharge, as the accumulation of the fluid evacuated increases the disease. If, says Dr. Robertson, a few motions weaken a healthy man, will they not much more weaken a person who is sick? By no means, while the fluid discharged was the cause of the symptoms, as in the instances mentioned. In hot climates the circumstances are different: the bilious discharge originates from relaxation, and, the bile in the intestines once evacuated, its accumulation is prevented by the bark. In this country, the tenacious and more inflammatory state

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of the fibres occasions it to produce a stricture, and seems rather to prevent its excretion than the secretion. If then fevers are of one genus, three or four species, requiring different treatment, may be very properly pointed out; the intermittent, the inflammatory fever from cold, independent of local inflammation; the nervous fever of this climate, and the malignant remittents, which are sometimes at first inflammatory. The nervous fever is nearly allied to the putrid fever, and perhaps the large accumulations of bile may occasionally attend either, forming a striking and important feature in an epidemic, but not sufficiently characteristic to distinguish a new species. We have avoided the terms of authors, which have so much displeased Dr. Robertson, and can assure him, that these distinctions are carefully noted from the bed-side.

It is the next object to enquire how far this fever is properly styled *febrile infection*. Fevers, our author observes, are infectious; and, though some may escape the disease after being exposed to infection, persons escape also the small-pox, and even the plague, in the same situation. If it were not to prevent alarming apprehensions, which would sometimes deprive the unhappy sufferer of assistance, we should not have noticed this part; for, in every other view, it would be quarrelling with a word. Infection is undoubtedly a cause of fever in hot climates, and those kinds of which our author treats are certainly infectious. We sometimes find the putrid fever and the ulcerated throat communicated also by infection in this climate; but it is not a common cause, and should not be considered as such. Dr. Robertson's reference to the small-pox is not applicable; for the degree of infection is so different, that, what makes a characteristic distinction in the one, is of very little consequence in the other. In this climate the putrid fore-throat is the most infectious kind of fever; yet, of the attendants even in the worst kind, not one in ten take it; but if one who has not had the small-pox, stays only in the room with the diseased person, as many minutes as the attendants on the sore throat continue days, it is more than an equal chance that he will be infected. The nervous fever is seldom to be traced by infection, and it is greatly doubted whether the intermittents are at all infectious.

These are the leading principles of our author's treatise, and having stated them, with what may be advanced in opposition, we should take our leave of this tract, if one other subject did not demand our attention, the use of opium. This medicine often does injury, and, to employ it with advantage, much knowledge and a careful attention are necessary; but, properly managed, it is one of the most useful medicines in fevers. Our author, however, is so far a follower of Dr. Brown, as to employ

employ it with a view to stimulate; and, as he is a careful observer, we think his remarks should be treated with respect. We shall select them in his own words, adding only, that his facts do not seem to us to prove his position, that opium may be usefully employed as a stimulus in fevers.

‘ Dr. Robertson first used opium in his own case. He laboured under no other indisposition than what is commonly understood by being *nervous*. I began with doses of twenty-five drops of tinct. theb.; and by degrees increased the dose to seventy drops, in one ounce and a half of white wine; and the same number of drops of sp. vol. arom. as of the tinct. theb. and a few drops of sp. lav. comp. to render it more palatable, at bed-time. The effects which I observed from these draughts were as follow:—I passed the night comfortably, but could not sleep; and was always more inclined to lie in bed, and to doze, in the mornings, than usual, especially after taking the dose of seventy drops.

‘ When I got up in the morning, my countenance was extremely diseased, and my eyes bloodshot, as if I had been very drunk over night, I was told. I was so very languid, heavy, and giddy, that I could scarcely stand; my mouth was exceedingly parched; I perceived a disagreeable sensation about my throat; and when I attempted to swallow at breakfast, particularly bread, I found deglutition almost impeded from a straightness about the pharynx and œsophagus. My appetite, which is always keen for breakfast, was destroyed; I frequently retched; and was altogether so greatly diseased, and unfit for business, that I resolved on taking a dose of forty drops of the tinct. theb. in the manner before mentioned; soon after which I began to recover gradually, but neither had an appetite, nor was comfortable all day. Next day I was less nervous than usual, and was well in other respects, except being costive. The doses of sixty, fifty, and even down to thirty drops, have affected me in the same manner, only in a less degree.

‘ I have given opium to many patients in the same manner; and to one, in particular, in doses of ninety drops: and they felt themselves next day as I have described my own feelings; and numbers have complained besides of great itching over their bodies, and of a slight eruption. The dose, however, which I most commonly administered, was fifty drops, and sometimes with the same number of liquor. anodyn. Hoffman. or of the sp. vol. aromat. or of sp. lavend. c. either in an ounce and half of wine, ardent spirit, or spirituous waters: this given in the exacerbation or paroxysm, in several bad cases of febrile infection, brought on a remission, and the bark was immediately administered freely with wine and water. I have made trial of this stimulus in some other cases of debility, which have done well; excepting one, who was at the point of death before he began to take it, in a small quantity, frequently repeated.

‘ From these experiments I am convinced that the effects of opium are generally very little known ; for, given in the manner I have mentioned, I have never known it occasion sleep or comatose symptoms. but to act powerfully as an anodyne, and to prevent sleep. But however favourable I may thence be disposed to think of the diffusive stimuli, I never will, nor recommend to, dash with hundreds of drops the first, second, or third dose, in any patient’s case whose constitution I am unacquainted with. As a powerful stimulant therefore, in moderate doses, gradually increased according to circumstances, it may be given with bark in febrile infection, with great advantage ; but a trial is no more to be made, to see how much may be poured down the throat than of wine.’

As a treatise on the ship-fever of this climate, and on the jail and hospital fever of almost every climate, this essay deserves much attention, and may be considered as very valuable. In proving that fever is so much of the same kind, in every instance, as to require the same remedy, or that it is generally so infectious as to merit the title of febrile infection, our author fails ; and since his errors may be highly dangerous, we have pointed them out with care.

A Collection of Treaties between Great Britain and other Powers.

By George Chalmers, Esq. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Boards.
Stockdale. 1790.

FROM a voluminous collection of near forty folios, our author has compiled these very useful volumes, in which he has inserted a chronological index of the treaties, with references where they may be found, and given at length the more interesting ones.

The first treaty of Great Britain, printed by authority, was that with Spain, 1604, and the sagacity of William suggested the utility of publishing by authority the public conventions of Britain with other powers. To this we owe the vast and laborious collection by Rymer, and his assistant and successor Sanderson ; a work equally honourable and advantageous to the nation. Besides this immense compilation, Rymer was a poet, a critic, and an historian. To his sagacity we still owe some judicious notes on Shakspeare, which later editors have preserved notwithstanding the anathemas of Warburton. The publications of treaties in our own country are sufficiently known : we shall transcribe, therefore, our author’s account of the labours of foreigners.

‘ How early foreign nations began to publish their treaties I am unable to tell. The articles of the twelve years truce between Spain and the United Netherlands, which were concluded in April,

April, 1609, were immediately printed by authority. The momentous treaties of the subsequent age were successively published, as they were produced by various events. But the first collection of public conventions, which comprehended the interests of the European nations, was published at Hanover, in 1693, by the illustrious Leibnitz, in two folio volumes, under the title of *Codex juris gentium diplomaticus*. Leibnitz, who was born at Leipzig, in 1646, raised himself by his genius and his labours to eminence among the high, and died in 1716, at the age of seventy.

During a busy age of frequent negotiation, the public curiosity demanded fresh gratification. In 1700, four folio volumes of National Agreements were published, under the inspection of James Bernard, who was born in Dauphiné; and, retiring into Switzerland and Holland, after the revocation of the edict of Nantz, became professor of philosophy at Leyden, and died in 1718. Thus, in the ardour of the public, and the interests of the booksellers, was laid the foundation of the *Corps Universel Diplomatique du Droit des Gens*. The labours of Bernard were expanded and improved by the cares of Du Mont. This vast collection appeared in 1726. Du Mont was also a French refugee, who, after serving in the armies of France, retired to Holland, and became historiographer to the emperor: after various publications, he died in 1726, having acquired the rank of baron. The booksellers at Amsterdam, willing to gratify the public taste, and to promote their own gains, found other workmen, when they determined to furnish a Supplement to the *Corps Diplomatique*. The celebrated Barbeyrac gave them, in 1739, a large volume, comprehending the ancient treaties, from the Amphictyonic times to the age of Charlemagne, which he had extracted from the authors of Greece and Rome, and from the monuments of antiquity. This is a work of vast and curious erudition. The performances of Bernard and Du Mont were only the labours of the hand: the volume of Barbeyrac was the elaborate production of the head. John Barbeyrac, who must not be confounded with his uncle Charles Barbeyrac, was born at Beziers, became professor of law first at Lausanne, and afterwards at Groningen, and finished his useful course in 1747. The booksellers had skilfully resolved to divide their intended publication into three parts: the first was the historical and chronological collection of Barbeyrac, which has been already mentioned, and which was designed as an introduction to the diplomatic code; the second was properly the Supplement, being an extension and continuance of the voluminous works of Bernard and Du Mont; and the third part was to consist of the ceremonial of the courts of Europe. The performance of the two last parts was given to Roussel, the historiographer of the prince of Orange, whose diligence

ligence and whose knowledge qualified him eminently for a task thus arduous and delicate.

'A complete collection of General Treaties must consist of the following books: 1st. Leibnitz's Codex, in 1693; 2dly. The Corps Diplomatique, with its Supplement, in 1739, consisting of twenty volumes in folio, to which is annexed a copious index of matters; 3dly, St. Priest's Histoire de Traités de Paix du xvii Siècle, depuis la Paix de Vervins jusqu'à celle de Nimègue, 1725, 2 vol. in folio; and 4thly, of the Negociations Secrètes, touchant la Paix de Munster et d'Osnabrug, 1725, 4 vol. in folio. These ample collections begin with the establishment of the Amphictyons, 1496 years before the birth of Christ, being the most ancient treaty which is to be met with in the records of time; and end with the pacification of the troubles of Geneva, in May, 1738.—Such, then, is the vast mass of papers which have originated from the restlessness, or the wisdom, of Europe; and which every one must possess, who is ambitious of extensive knowledge, with regard to the discordant interests of the European Powers.'

To these must be added the histories of particular negotiations, and Roussel's 'Acts, Negotiations, and Treaties,' from 1713 to 1748, in twenty-five octavo volumes.

Our author, in his list, proceeds from the north, and Russia is his first object. The most early privileges granted to the English merchants are to be found in Hackluyt's voyages, dated 1555, and the index, with accurate references, are continued down to the treaty in 1766; a copy of that treaty, from the treaty in 1785, is subjoined. The Russian edict, for establishing '*an unlimited trade*' in the empress's new dominions on the Black Sea, is also inserted at length.

Our author proceeds to Sweden, and his list of treaties reaches from 1654 to 1666. This was the last treaty; but the more important ones are, as usual, printed entire.

The first treaty with Denmark is in 1640, and it reaches to 1739; of these the more important ones are subjoined at length. The only convention, after 1739, was an explanation of one article of the commercial treaty of 1670, respecting warlike stores.

The treaties with the Hanse Towns extend from 1435 to 1731: the principal ones published relate to the herring-trade. With Prussia there are treaties only from the beginning of this century, but since that time they are pretty numerous.

The first treaty with the States-General is in 1578, and the last is well known to have been in 1788. With Austria our connection began in 1496, and ended in 1743; with France so early as 1259, and the explanatory convention of 1787 is
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the last public document of this kind. A copy of the famous family compact is subjoined.

In his progress southward, Mr. Chalmers proceeds, in the second volume, to Spain, giving a reference to or printing at length the various treaties from 1604 to 1786; to Portugal, from 1643 to 1763; to Sardinia, from 1669 to 1748; to Tuscany, from 1490 to 1718, adding particularly the 'Stipulation' for Leghorn to remain a free port; to the two Sicilies, from 1604 to 1738; and to Genoa and Venice, from 1316 to 1748.

In Africa, the connection of England with Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, we perceive reaches from 1662 to 1762. With the Porte the treaties extend from 1641 to 1675.

In Asia, the treaties with Bengal and Oude are from 1757 to 1788; with the Nizam, from 1759 to 1768; with Arcot, from 1763 to 1787; with Tanjour, from 1771 to 1787; and with Hyder or Tippoo, from 1763 to 1784.

With America there was only one treaty, that of 1783.

We have given this summary account chiefly to show the extent of our author's labours, and the great utility of this collection. To have mentioned the particular treaties here printed, to have engaged in the examination of the policy of each, or of the utility of our connections with any particular court, would have extended our article too far, and have been unsuitable to our present attempt. We have said enough to give our readers a proper idea of the contents of these volumes, and from the best examination which our situation and circumstances allow, we think our author's accuracy unimpeachable.

A Short Review of Mr. Pitt's Administration. 8vo. 2s.
Ridgway.

THIS is one of the most superficial pamphlets we have had the misfortune to examine. The author has not even the merit of inventing new scandal, but contents himself with stringing together what has been retailed and detailed in certain newspapers and pamphlets against the minister, from the commencement of his administration. Mr. Pope has characterised such authors and their writings many years ago.

Dulness with transport ey'd the lively dunce,
Rememb'ring she herself was Pertness once.

That our readers may be enabled to judge for themselves, we shall present them with an extract, in which the pamphleteer employs the true cant of a political scribbler.

Speaking of the revenue, he says, 'Here we meet the minister in his strong hold, his 'vantage ground. Here, at least, he is happy, "dans la Rose je fleurie." The reader need not be apprehensive,

hensive, that in turning over these pages, he will be troubled with pounds, shillings, and pence; with the algebra of the treasury. In the light I consider it, the revenue is no longer a question of arithmetic. Mr. Pitt asserts that the revenue is in a most flourishing condition; Mr. Sheridan denies it. Who shall decide when doctors disagree? *Non nostrum est tantas componere lites.* There must, however, be something rotten, something doubtful, something odd, in so striking a difference upon a subject of science, where certainty is proverbial and indisputable. The grand doubt may teach us this certain truth, that we are come to the end of the present mode of collecting our resources, that the system is exhausted. When our revenue is computed upon contingencies that may never happen, upon events that may be contradicted by others; upon peace establishments that may be subverted by war, or by war establishments in peace; when we cannot pull off our hats without saluting the stamp-office, when our hands are gyved by the treasury, and when taxation talks of hunting out wealth from the good "kissing carrion" in the dog-kennel, we may well say the end of all is come. Hence gloomy politicians have foretold the revolution of France in England, the fall of empire, and the bankruptcy of the state. That surely is something more than a question of arithmetic. But as I humbly conceive these gentlemen's fears may have outrun their judgment, that their views have been contracted by a present state of things, and that they have mistaken an end of the present system of taxation for an end of our real resources, I shall not unite with them in gratifying my countrymen with the pleasant prediction of their country's ruin.—They may perhaps have been led into this deception by the minister himself, who seems, even in these times of peaceful contemplation, to have confined the views of government within the same short-sighted circle of ancient and obsolete taxation that prevailed in less opulent, but less needy times. When he has been in want of money, he has taxed the sportsmen of flying game, where the tax is as uncertain as the property; he has added a little to this and a little to that, where before there was too much; he has darkened our day-lights and excised our candles, and has relied on resources incapable of being collected—a dead letter in our statute-book—the revenue of the printer.—Such has been the system of Mr. Pitt.

Seven years of uninterrupted peace might have afforded the means of preventing what is not an evil in prospect, but one that is pressing and immediate; an evil that does not require the ingenuity of a Sheridan to discover, but does require all the ingenuity of a Pitt to palliate; for even he does not deny the necessity of a radical alteration, and if he did, the first year of a war would see him retract it—this minister of all days; this patriot in power; this minister out of place.

Method, not means, are wanting; opulence is still discernible, greater than at any former period: opulence is still variously diffused, though poverty may press upon many. Thus variously diffused, it is capable of some way to fix contribution on those who are able to contribute. Far be it from me to assume the duty or the knowledge of a chancellor of the exchequer. But are there no ways of making the land proprietors contribute an additional relief (leaving the present as it stands) in a more equal manner? And would they not prefer it to other indirect modes of taxation, that impoverish them more, without enriching the state so much? Is not the poor's rate high and vast in its amount, and greatly misapplied, an object worthy notice as a subject of revenue, still more than as a subject of law and government? Are not the roads worth travelling over by the chancellor of the exchequer? Is there no way of getting at the immense incomes of the monied men, without hurting public credit, but by taxing expences, which fall equally upon those who are with as without money in the funds? And would the stockholder tremble at paying a trifle when bankruptcy is thundering in his ears.'

As this author accuses Mr. Pitt of levying money on the nation too freely, though with the authority of parliament, we may ask by what authority he himself attempts to levy two shillings on the public, for a quantity of printed paper usually sold for one shilling? The answer is very obvious, and redounds equally to the praise of the author and the bookseller: the former was exhausted of ideas, and the latter kindly steps in to his aid, with a catalogue consisting of eight pages, to swell the appearance of his immaculate and public-spirited production.

Voyages and Travels of an Indian Interpreter and Trader, describing the Manners and Customs of the North American Indians; with an Account of the Posts situated on the River St. Laurence, Lake Ontario, &c. To which is added, a Vocabulary of the Chippeway Language, &c. &c. By J. Long. 4to. 12s. Boards. Robson. 1791.

VOYAGES and Travels among rude nations, when related by men of veracity, afford rational entertainment to every reader; and philosophers have been not a little indebted for their theory, to information drawn from this source. The author of the work before us, from the general strain of his narrative, seems intitled to our confidence. He set out on his voyage to North America in the year 1768. On his arrival at Montreal, he was placed under the care of a very respectable merchant, to learn the Indian trade, which is the chief support of the town. He soon acquired a competent knowledge of the Mohawk language, and afterwards resided for

for some time in an Indian village, called Cahnuağa, or Cock-nawaga, situated about nine miles from Montreal, on the south side of the river St. Laurence.

The savages of this nation are called the praying Indians, from the circumstance of their chiefs wearing crucifixes, and going through the streets of Montreal with their beads, begging alms. The village contains about two hundred houses, which, though chiefly built of stone, have a mean and dirty appearance. The inhabitants amount to about eight hundred, and, what is contrary to general observation on the population of the Indians, are continually increasing. Their religion is Catholic, and they have a French priest, who is, according to the appellation they give him, 'The Master of Life's Man.'

The author next gives an account of the Indians of the Five and Six Nations. The former of these he shews are not easily to be conquered; a remark which proves the necessity of preserving them in the British interest; and he observes, that no method will more effectually conduce to this end, than retaining in our hands such barriers as will enable us to afford them protection, and supply them with arms and ammunition, and other necessaries, in time of danger. The Mohawks are the most warlike of the Five Nations, and consist of near seven hundred warriors. This nation claims all the country south of the river St. Laurence to the Ohio, and down the Ohio to the Wabache, which lies to the westward of the state of Pennsylvania, near to the borders of Virginia.

The traveller afterwards gives an account of Indian scouts, and the manner of scalping; with which we shall not attempt to amuse our readers, and we hope it is unnecessary to instruct them.

Next follows an account of the character and disposition of the Connecedaga, or Rondaxe Indians; with remarks on the Iroquois and Cherokee nations. We are informed that no nation of the savages was ever more faithful to the British interest than that of the Connecedagas; not even the Mohawks, whose fidelity is become almost proverbial. The Iroquois, our author tells us, laugh at the idea of obedience to kings; for they cannot reconcile submission with the dignity of man. Every individual is a sovereign in his own mind; and as he conceives he derives his freedom from the great Spirit alone, he cannot be induced to acknowledge any other power. They are so vindictive, that they carry their resentments with them to the grave, and bequeath them to their posterity.

In the account which the author gives of the Indian dances, he enumerates eleven kinds, of all which he was perfectly master, and frequently led the sett. With regard to personal strength, he informs us that the Indians are excelled by many;

and even in hunting, the Virginians equal them in every part of the chase. The savages, however, he admits to be extraordinary marksmen.

The traveller next describes Lake Superior, with the ceremony of Indian adoption; in which the calumet, the wampum, and all the other paraphernalia, are brought into use. After a recital of the proceedings of a trading party, we are entertained with an account of the Indian manner of going to war, and a variety of other particulars, relative to the superstition, jealousy, &c. of the Indian nations.

The author afterwards proceeds upon a second expedition among the Nipegan Indians, where he meets with several adventures. The following extract affords a description of an Indian courtship.

‘ When an Indian wishes to take a wife, and fees one to his mind, he applies to the father of the girl, and asks his consent in the following words :

“ *Nocey, cunner kee darmissey kee darnis ne zargayyar kakaygo O water-warwardooffin carwaveen peccan weetley gammat ottertassey me-marjis mee mor.*”

“ Father, I love your daughter, will you give her to me, that the small roots of her heart may entangle with mine, so that the strongest wind that blows shall never separate them.”

‘ If the father approves, an interview is appointed, for which the lover prepares by a perspiration; he then comes into her presence, sits down on the ground, and smokes his pipe: during the time of smoking, he keeps throwing small pieces of wood, of about an inch in length, at her, one by one, to the number of one hundred. As many as she can catch in a bark bowl, so many presents her lover must make to her father, which he considers as payment for his daughter. The young warrior then gives a feast, to which he invites all the family—when the feast is done, they dance and sing their war songs.—The merriment being over, and mutual presents exchanged between the lover and her relations, the father covers them with a beaver robe, and gives them likewise a new gun and a birch canoe, with which the ceremony ends.

‘ When the French became masters of Canada, the ceremony of marriage between the Savages was very fantastical.

‘ When a lover wished his mistress to be informed of his affection, he procured an interview with her, which was always at night, and in the presence of some of her friends; this was conducted in the following manner:

‘ He entered the *wigwam*, the door of which was commonly a skin, and went up to the hearth on which some hot coals were burning; he then lighted a stick of wood, and approaching his mistress, pulled her *three* times by the nose, to awaken her; this was

was done with decency, and being the custom, the squaw did not feel alarmed at the liberty. This ceremony, ridiculous as it may appear, was continued occasionally for *two* months, both parties behaving during the time, in all other respects, with the greatest circumspection.

‘The moment she becomes a wife, she loses her liberty, and is an obsequious slave to her husband, who never loses sight of his prerogative. Wherever he goes she must follow, and durst not venture to incense him by a refusal, knowing that if she neglects him, extreme punishment, if not death, ensues. The chief liberty he allows her is to dance and sing in his company, and is seldom known to take any more notice of her than of the most indifferent person: while she is obliged to perform the drudgery of life, which custom or insensibility enables her to do with the utmost cheerfulness.’

Our author favours us with an account of the method, which he tells us he was obliged to adopt, to quiet an old Indian woman, who was continually importuning him for liquor. He gave her, it seems, forty drops of the tincture of cantharides, with an equal quantity of laudanum, in a glass of rum; but with what view he gave the former of these ingredients, he has not been so obliging as to mention.

The Indians, he informs us, laugh at the Europeans for having only one wife, and that for life, as they conceive the Good Spirit formed them to be happy, and not to continue together unless their tempers and dispositions were congenial.

The contempt entertained of death, by some of those nations, is extraordinary.

‘The Shawano Indians, says our author, captured a warrior of the Anantoocah nation, and put him to the stake, according to their usual cruel solemnities: having unconcernedly suffered much torture, he told them, with scorn, they did not know how to punish a noted enemy; therefore he was willing to teach them, and would confirm the truth of his assertion if they allowed him the opportunity. Accordingly he requested of them a pipe and some tobacco, which was given him; as soon as he had lighted it, he sat down, naked as he was, on the women’s burning torches, that were within his circle, and continued smoking his pipe without the least discomposure: on this a head warrior leaped up, and said, they saw plain enough that he was a warrior, and not afraid of dying, nor should he have died, only that he was both spoiled by the fire, and devoted to it by their laws; however, though he was a very dangerous enemy, and his nation a treacherous people, it should be seen that they paid a regard to bravery, even in one who was marked with war streaks at the cost of many of the lives of their beloved kindred; and then, by way of favour, he with his

friendly tomahawk instantly put an end to all his pains. Though the merciful but bloody instrument was ready some minutes before it gave the blow, yet, I was assured, the spectators could not perceive the sufferer to change either his posture or his steadiness of countenance in the least.

Death, among the Indians, in many situations is rather courted than dreaded, and particularly at an advanced period of life, when they have not strength or activity to hunt: the father then solicits to change his climate, and the son cheerfully acts the part of an executioner, putting a period to his parent's existence.

Among the northern Chippeways, when the father of a family seems reluctant to comply with the usual custom, and his life becomes burdensome to himself and friends, and his children are obliged to maintain him with the labour of their hands, they propose to him the alternative, either to be put on shore on some island, with a small canoe and paddles, bows and arrows, and a bowl to drink out of, and there run the risk of starving; or to suffer death according to the laws of the nation manfully. As there are few instances where the latter is not preferred, I shall relate the ceremony practised on such an occasion.

A sweating-house is prepared in the same form as at the ceremony of adoption, and whilst the person is under this preparatory trial, the family are rejoicing that the Master of Life has communicated to them the knowledge of disposing of the aged and infirm, and sending them to a better country, where they will be renovated, and hunt again with all the vigour of youth. They then smoke the pipe of peace, and have their dog-feast: they also sing the grand medicine song, as follows:

*“Wa baguarmisse Kitchee Mannitoo kaygait cockinnor nishinnor-bay ojeey kee candan bapadgey kee zargetoone nishinnorbay mornooch kee tarpenan nocey keen aighler, O, dependan nishinnorbay mornooch tewwarch weene ojeey mishtoot poockan tunnockay.—*The Master of Life gives courage. It is true, all Indians know that he loves us, and we now give our father to him, that he may find himself young in another country, and be able to hunt.”

The songs and dances are renewed, and the eldest son gives his father the death-stroke with a tomahawk: they then take the body, which they paint in the best manner, and bury it with the war weapons, making a bark hut to cover the grave, to prevent the wild animals from disturbing it.

Adultery, among the northern savages, we are told, is generally punished in a summary way by the husband, who either beats his wife very severely, or bites off her nose.

On the whole, the present work affords that entertainment which is expected in the account of the manners and customs of barbarous nations; but the author has in his view an object

of

of greater importance. His description of the country, and his observations relative to the trade with the inhabitants, must prove highly useful to such as would prosecute any commercial pursuits in that quarter of the world; and his large vocabulary of the Chippeway language must greatly conduce to the same purpose. The volume is beautifully printed, on a remarkably fine paper, and accompanied with a map.

A critical Pronouncing Dictionary and Expofitor of the English Language. In which not only the Meaning of every Word is clearly explained, and the Sound of every Syllable distinctly fhown, but where Words are fubject to different Pronunciations, the Reasons for each are at large difplayed, and the preferable Pronunciation is pointed out. To which are prefixed, Principles of English Pronunciation. By J. Walker. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Robinfons. 1791.

NEXT to the propriety and precision of language, nothing is of greater importance in speech than a juſt elocution; and amongſt the numerous grammarians of late years, we know of none that has treated this intereſting ſubject more ably or more ingeniouſly than the author now before us. Thoſe who are not ſtrangers to the ſucceſs with which Mr. Walker has taught the principles of elocution to his pupils, *viva voce*, will congratulate themſelves and the public on the appearance of a Dictionary, which is calculated to eſtabliſh and diffuſe a right pronunciation of the Engliſh language. The great attention beſtowed in the execution of this deſign, is ſufficiently evident: the author has not only conſulted the works of all the moſt approved writers on the ſubject, but has examined their different opinions with ſuch acutenefs, and delivered his own with ſuch modeſty, ſupported however by arguments, as reflect equal credit on his judgment and candour. Of the general utility of a work of this nature, and of the rules by which it is conducted, we cannot give our readers a more clear idea, than by laying before them the following extract from the preface.

‘ — The utility of a work of this kind is not confined to thoſe parts of language where the impropriety is groſs and palpable; beſides thoſe imperfections in pronunciation, which diſguſt every ear not accuſtomed to them, there are a thouſand inſenſible deviations, in the more minute parts of language, as the unaccented ſyllables may be called, which do not ſtrike the ear ſo forcibly as to mark any direct impropriety in particular words, but occaſion only ſuch a general imperfection as gives a bad impreſſion upon the whole. Speakers with theſe imperfections paſs very well in com-

mon conversation; but when they are required to pronounce with emphasis, and for that purpose to be more distinct and definite in their utterance, here their ear fails them; they have been accustomed only to loose cursory speaking, and for want of a firmness of pronunciation, are like those painters who draw the muscular exertions of the human body without any knowledge of anatomy. This is one reason, perhaps, why we find the elocution of so few people agreeable when they read or speak to an assembly, while so few offend us by their utterance in common conversation. A thousand faults lie concealed in a miniature, which a microscope brings to view; and it is only by pronouncing on a larger scale, as public speaking may be called, that we prove the propriety of our elocution. As, therefore, there are certain deviations from analogy which are not at any rate tolerable, there are others which only, as it were, tarnish the pronunciation, and make it less brilliant and agreeable. There are few who have turned their thoughts on this subject without observing, that they sometimes pronounce the same word or syllable in a different manner; and as neither of these manners offend the ear, they are at loss to which they shall give the preference; but as one must necessarily be more agreeable to the analogy of the language than the other, a display of these analogies, in a dictionary of this kind, will immediately remove this uncertainty; and in this view of the variety we shall discover a fitness in one mode of speaking, which will give a firmness and security to our pronunciation, from a confidence that it is founded on reason, and the general tendency of the language.

‘But, alas! reasoning on language, however well founded, may be all overturned by a single quotation from Horace:

———*usus*

Quem penes arbitrium est, & jus & norma loquendi.

‘This, it must be owned, is a succinct way of ending the controversy; and by virtue of this argument we may become critics in language without the trouble of studying it. Not that I would be thought, in the most distant manner, to deny, that Custom is the sovereign arbiter of language. Far from it. I acknowledge its authority, and know there is no appeal from it; I wish only to dispute where this arbitrator has not decided; for if once Custom speaks out, however absurdly, I sincerely acquiesce in its sentence.

‘But what is this custom to which we must so implicitly submit? Is it the usage of the greater part of speakers, whether good or bad? This has never been asserted by the most sanguine abettors of its authority. Is it the majority of the studious in schools and colleges, with those of the learned professions, or of those who, from their elevated birth or station, give laws to the refinements and elegances of a court? To confine propriety to the latter, which is too often the case, seems an injury to the former; who,

who, from their very profession, appear to have a natural right to a share, at least, in the legislation of language, if not to an absolute sovereignty. The polished attendants on a throne are as apt to depart from simplicity in language as in dress and manners; and novelty, instead of custom, is too often the *jus & norma loquendi* of a court.

Perhaps an attentive observation will lead us to conclude, that the usage, which ought to direct us, is neither of these we have been enumerating, taken singly, but a sort of compound ratio of all three. Neither a finical pronunciation of the court, nor a pedantic Græcism of the schools, will be denominated respectable usage, till a certain number of the general mass of speakers have acknowledged them; nor will a multitude of common speakers authorise any pronunciation which is reprobated by the learned and polite.'

Immediately after the preface, we meet with Rules to be observed by the Natives of Ireland, in order to obtain a just pronunciation of English. The observations on this subject are chiefly extracted from Mr. Sheridan, who being a native of Ireland, had, therefore, the best opportunity of understanding the peculiarities of pronunciation in that kingdom. To these Mr. Walker has added some useful remarks of his own.

Next follow Rules to be observed by the Natives of Scotland for attaining a just pronunciation of the English. Our author observes, that the pronunciation which distinguishes the inhabitants of Scotland is of a very different kind from that of Ireland, and may be divided into the quantity, quality, and accentuation of the vowels. He farther observes, that besides the mispronunciation of single words, there is a tone of voice with which those words are accompanied, that distinguishes a native of Ireland or Scotland as much as an improper sound of the letters.

Besides a peculiarity of inflexion, which our author takes to be a falling circumflex, directly opposite to that of the Scotch (*Scots*), the Welch pronounce the sharp consonants and aspirations instead of the flat. We think the word *Scotch*, in the acceptance of a substantive noun, is erroneous. The proper gentilitious name of the people of Scotland, both from etymology and vernacular use, is undoubtedly *Scots*; and the word *Scotch* is nothing more than a vulgar abbreviation of the adjective *Scottish*. We suspect that Mr. Walker has, in this instance, sacrificed his own opinion to common use; and we only regret that common use, when ill-founded, should receive any sanction from so respectable an authority.

That there are different pronunciations in the different counties of England, especially those remote from the capital, is well known; but to delineate all those is not the author's intention in the present work. He mentions, however, a few peculiarities of the Londoners, which are the more worthy of observation, as the pronunciation in the capital is considered as a model to the distant provinces. Of the faults of the Londoners, the first is the pronouncing *s* indistinctly after *st*.

'The letter *s* after *st*, from the very difficulty of its pronunciation, is often sounded inarticulately. The inhabitants of London, of the lower order, cut the knot, and pronounce it in a distinct syllable, as if *e* were before it; but this is to be avoided as the greatest blemish in speaking: the three last letters in *pests*, *fists*, *mists*, &c. must all be distinctly heard in one syllable, and without permitting the letters to coalesce. For the acquiring of this sound, it will be proper to select these nouns that end in *st* or *ste*; to form them into plurals, and pronounce them forcibly and distinctly every day. The same may be observed of the third person of verbs ending in *st* or *stes*, as *persists*, *wastes* *hastes*, &c.

'For this purpose, the *Rhyming Dictionary*, where all the words are arranged according to their terminations, will be found peculiarly useful.

'SECOND FAULT.—*Pronouncing w for v, and inversely.*

'The pronunciation of *v* for *w*, and more frequently of *w* for *v*, among the inhabitants of London, and those not always of the lower order, is a blemish of the first magnitude. The difficulty of remedying this defect is the greater, as the cure of one of these mistakes has a tendency to promote the other.

'Thus, if you are very careful to make a pupil pronounce *weal* and *vinegar*, not as if written *weal* and *winegar*, you will find him very apt to pronounce *wine* and *wind*, as if written *vine* and *wind*. The only method of rectifying this habit seems to be this: let the pupil select from a dictionary, not only all the words that begin with *v*, but as many as he can of those that have this letter in any other part. Let him be told to bite his under lip while he is founding the *v* in those words, and to practise this every day till he pronounces the *v* properly at first sight: then, and not till then, let him pursue the same method with the *w*; which he must be directed to pronounce by a pouting out of the lips without suffering them to touch the teeth. Thus, by giving all the attention to only one of these letters at a time, and fixing by habit the true sound of that, we shall at last find both of them reduced to their proper pronunciation in a shorter time than by endeavouring to rectify them both at once.

'THIRD

‘ THIRD FAULT.—*Not sounding h after w.*

‘ The aspirate *h* is often sunk, particularly in the capital, where we do not find the least distinction of sound between *while* and *wile*, *whet* and *wet*, *where* and *were*, &c. The best method to rectify this is, to collect all the words of this description from a dictionary, and write them down; and instead of the *wh* to begin them with *hoo* in a distinct syllable, and so to pronounce them. Thus let *while* be written and sounded *hoo-ile*; *whet*, *hoo-et*; *where*, *hoo-are*; *whip*, *hoo-ip*, &c. This is no more, as Dr. Lowth observes, that placing the aspirate in its true position before the *w*, as it is in the Saxon, which the words come from; where we may observe, that though we have altered the orthography of our ancestors, we have still preserved their pronunciation.

‘ FOURTH FAULT.—*Not sounding h where it ought to be sounded, and inversely.*

‘ A still worse habit than the last prevails, chiefly among the people of London, that of sinking the *h* at the beginning of words where it ought to be sounded, and of sounding it, either where it is not seen, or where it ought to be sunk. Thus we not unfrequently hear, especially among children, *heart* pronounced *art*, and *arm*, *harm*. This is a vice perfectly similar to that of pronouncing the *v* for the *w*, and the *w* for the *v*, and requires a similar method to correct it.

‘ As there are so very few words in the language where the initial *h* is sunk, we may select these from the rest, and, without setting the pupil right when he pronounces these, or when he prefixes the *h* improperly to other words, we may make him pronounce all the words where *h* is sounded, till he has almost forgot there are any words pronounced otherwise. Then he may go over those words to which he improperly prefixes the *h*, and those where the *h* is seen but not sounded, without any danger of an interchange. As these latter words are but few, I shall subjoin a catalogue of them for the use of the learner. *Heir*, *heiress*, *herb*, *herbage*, *honest*, *honesty*, *honestly*, *honour*, *honorable*, *honorably*, *hospital*, *hostler*. *hour*, *hourly*, *humble*, *humbly*, *humbleness*, *humour*, *humourist*, *humorous*, *humorously*, *humourous*. Where we may observe, that *humour*, and its compounds not only sink the *h*, but sound the *u* like the pronoun *you*, or the noun *yeu*, as if written *yewmour*, *yewmours*, &c.’

After giving directions to foreigners for attaining a right knowledge of the English language, the author delivers a series of useful remarks on the pronunciation of every letter in the alphabet, the combination of particular letters, and on accent, quantity, and syllabication; the whole amounting to 545 aphoristical paragraphs.

That

That our readers may be enabled to judge of the execution of the Dictionary, we shall lay before them a few of such articles as are not only the most differently pronounced, but which most divide the opinions of grammarians. The first of these articles is *Authority*.

‘ *AUTHORITY*, áw-têô’è-tè. f.

‘ Legal power; influence, credit; power, rule; support, countenance; testimony; credibility.

‘ This word is sometimes pronounced as if written *autORITY*. This affected pronunciation is traced to a gentleman who is one of the greatest ornaments of the law, as well as one of the politest scholars of the age, and whose authority has been sufficient to sway the bench and the bar, though *author*, *authentic*, *theatre*, *theory*, &c. and a thousand similar words where the *th* is heard, are constantly staring them in the face.

‘ The public ear, however, is not so far vitiated as to acknowledge this innovation; for though it may with security, and even approbation, be pronounced in Westminster Hall, it would not be quite so safe for an actor to adopt it on the stage.

‘ I know it will be said that *authoritas* is latter Latin, that the purer Latin never had the *b*; and that our word, which is derived from it, ought, on that account, to omit it. But it may be observed, that, according to the best Latin critics, the word ought to be written *auctoritas*, and that, according to this reasoning, we ought to write and pronounce *auctority* and *auctor*: but this, I presume, is farther than these innovators would choose to go. The truth is, such singularities of pronunciation should be left to the lower order of critics; who, like coxcombs in dress, would be utterly unnoticed if they were not distinguished by petty deviations from the rest of the world.’

The next article we shall select is *Satiety*.

‘ *SATIETY*, sâ-ti’è-tè. f.

‘ Fulness beyond desire or pleasure, more than enough, state of being palled.

‘ The sound of the second syllable of this word has been grossly mistaken by the generality of speakers; nor is it much to be wondered at. *Ti*, with the accent on it, succeeded by a vowel, is a very uncommon predicament for an English syllable to be under; and therefore it is not surprising that it has been almost universally confounded with an apparently similar, but really different assemblage of accent, vowels, and consonants. So accustomed is the ear to the aspirated sound of *t*, when followed by two vowels, that whenever these appear we are apt to annex the very same sound to that letter, without attending to an essential circumstance in this word,

word, which distinguishes it from every other in the language. There is no English word of exactly the same form with *satiety*, and therefore it cannot, like most other words, be tried by its peers; but analogy, that grand resource of reason, will as clearly determine, in this case, as if the most positive evidence were produced.

‘ In the first place, then, the sound commonly given to the second syllable of this word, which is that of the first of *si-lence*, as if written *sa-fi-e-ty*, is never found annexed to the same letters throughout the whole language. *Ti*, when succeeded by two vowels, in every instance but the word in question, sounds exactly like *sh*: thus *satiate*, *expatiate*, &c. are pronounced as if written *sa-she-ate*, *ex-pa-she-ate*, &c. and not *sa-se-ate*, *ex-pa-fi-ate*, &c. and therefore if the *t* must be aspirated in this word, it ought at least to assume that aspiration which is found among similar assemblages of letters, and instead of *sa-fi-ety*, it ought to be sounded *sa-she-ty*: in this mode of pronunciation a greater parity might be pleaded; nor should we introduce a new aspiration to reproach our language with needless irregularity. But if we once cast an eye on those conditions, on which we give an aspirated sound to the dentals, we shall find both these methods of pronouncing this word equally remote from an analogy. In almost every termination where the consonants, *t*, *d*, *c*, and *s*, precede the vowels, *ea*, *ia*, *ie*, *io*, &c. as in *martial*, *soldier*, *suspicion*, *confusion*, *anxious*, *prescience*, &c. the accent is on the syllable immediately before these consonants, and they all assume the aspiration; but in *elephantiasis*, *bendiadis*, *society*, *anxiety*, *society*, &c. the accent is immediately after these consonants, and the *t*, *d*, *c*, and *s*, are pronounced as free from aspiration as the same letters in *tiar*, *diet*, *cion*, *Ixion*, &c. the position of the accent makes the whole difference. But if analogy in our own language were silent, the uniform pronunciation of words from the learned languages, where these letters occur, should be sufficient to decide the dispute. Thus in *elephantiasis*, *Miltiades*, *satiety*, &c. the antepenultimate syllable *ti* is always pronounced like the English noun *tie*; nor should we dream of giving *ti* the aspirated sound in these words, though there would be exactly the same reason for it as in *satiety*: for, except in very few instances, as we pronounce Latin in the analogy of our own language, no reason can be given why we should pronounce the antepenultimate syllable in *satiety* one way, and that in *satiety* another.

‘ I should have thought my time thrown away, in so minute an investigation of the pronunciation of this word, if I had not found the best judges disagree about it. That Mr. Sheridan supposed it ought to be pronounced *sa-fi-e-ty*, is evident from his giving this

word as an instance of the various sounds of *t*, and telling us that here it sounds *s*. Mr. Garrick, whom I consulted on this word, told me, if there were any rules for pronunciation, I was certainly right in mine: but that he and his other literary acquaintance pronounced it in the other manner. Dr. Johnson likewise thought I was right, but that the greater number of speakers were against me; and Dr. Lowth told me, he was clearly of my opinion, but that he could get no body to follow him. I was much flattered to find my sentiments confirmed by so great a judge, and much more flattered when I found my reasons were entirely new to him.

‘ But, notwithstanding the tide of opinion was some years ago so much against me, I have since had the pleasure of finding some of the most judicious philologists on my side. Dr. Kenrick and Mr. Perry mark the word as I have done; and Mr. Nares is of opinion it ought to be so pronounced, though for a reason very different from those I have produced, namely, in order to keep it as distinct as be from the word *society*. While Mr. Fry frankly owns, it is very difficult to determine the proper pronunciation of this word.

‘ Thus I have ventured to decide where “ Doctors disagree,” and have been induced to spend so much time on the correction of this word, as the improper pronunciation of it does not, as in most other cases, proceed from an evident caprice of custom, as in *busy* and *bury*, or from a desire of drawing nearer to the original language, but from an absolute mistake of the principles on which we pronounce our own.’

The word *Bigoted* likewise claims particular attention.

‘ **BIGOTED**, big’gût-êd. a. Blindly prepossessed in favour of something.

‘ From what oddity I know not, this word is frequently pronounced as if accented on the last syllable but one, and is generally found written as if it ought to be so pronounced, the *t* being doubled, as is usual when a participle is formed from a verb that has its accent on the last syllable. Dr. Johnson, indeed, has very judiciously set both orthography and pronunciation to rights, and spells the word with one *t*, though he finds it with two in the quotations which he gives us from Garth and Swift. That the former thought it might be pronounced with the accent on the second syllable, is highly presumable from the use he makes of it, where he says:

“ Bigotted to this idol, we disclaim
Rest, health, and ease, for nothing but a name.”

‘ For if we do not lay the accent on the second syllable here, the verse will be unpardonably rugged. This mistake must certainly
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take its rise from supposing a verb which does not exist, namely, to *bigot*; but as this word is derived from a substantive, it ought to have the same accent; thus, though the word *ballot* and *billet* are verbs as well as nouns, yet as they have the accent on the first syllable, the participial adjectives derived from them have only one *t*, and both are pronounced with the accent on the first syllable, as *balloted*, *billited*. *Bigoted* therefore ought to have but one *t*, and to preserve the accent on the first syllable.'

To these we shall subjoin *Inimical*.

* *INIMICAL*, ïn-ïm'è kâl, or ïn-è-mi'kâl. a. Hostile, contrary, repugnant.

' This word sprung up in the House of Commons about ten years ago, and has since been so much in use as to make us wonder how we did so long without it. It had, indeed, one great recommendation, which was, that it was pronounced in direct opposition to the rules of our own language. An Englishman, who had never heard it pronounced, would, at first sight, have placed the accent on the antepenultimate, and have pronounced the penultimate *i* short; but the vanity of showing its derivation from the Latin *inimicus*, where the penultimate *i* is long; and the very oddity of pronouncing this *i* long in *inimical* made this pronunciation fashionable. I know it may be urged, that this word, with respect to sound, was as great an oddity in the Latin language as it is in ours; and that the reason for making the *i* long was its derivation from *amicus*. It will be said too, that, in other words, such as *aromaticus*, *tyrannicus*, *rhetoricus*, &c. the *i* was only terminational; but in *inimicus* it was radical, and therefore intitled to the quantity of its original, *amicus*. In answer to this, it may be observed, that this was no reason for placing the accent on that syllable in Latin. In that language, whenever the penultimate syllable was long, whether radical or terminational, it had always the accent on it. Thus the numerous terminations in *alis* and *ator*, by having the penultimate *a* long, had always the accent on that letter, while the *i* in the terminations *ilis* and *itas* never had the accent, because that vowel was always short. But allowing for a moment that we ought servilely to follow the Latin accent and quantity in words which we derive from that language; this rule, at least, ought to be restricted to such words as have preserved their Latin form, as *orator*, *senator*, *character*, &c. yet in these words we find the Latin penultimate accent entirely neglected, and the English antepenultimate adopted. But if this Latin accent and quantity should extend to words from the Latin that are anglicised, then we ought to pronounce *divinity*, *de-vine-e-ty*; *severity*, *severe-e-ty*; and *urbanity*, *ur-bane-e-ty*. In short, the whole language

guage would be metamorphosed, and we should neither pronounce English nor Latin, but a Babylonish dialect between both.'

These instances are sufficient to shew the utility of the present work, and the great judgment with which it is conducted. Our readers will observe, that the pronunciation of the different syllables is marked by figures, an explanation of which is prefixed to the Dictionary. It occurs to us, that the accentual mark placed upon the syllable which bears the stress, might have, in general, specified the pronunciation in a more easy and simple manner; though we cannot disapprove of any method which is adopted for the purpose of precision. On the whole, this elaborate Dictionary may be considered as a valuable supplement to that of Dr. Johnson, to whose extensive erudition and genius Mr. Walker does ample justice, without omitting to notice his defects. It is, however, a complete work in itself, giving not only the right pronunciation, but the sense of every word, and the proper method of spelling them.

The School for Arrogance: a Comedy. As it is acted at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By Thomas Holcroft. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons. 1791.

THE success of an author on the stage does not always imply that he must be equally successful in the closet. Like the trunkmaker in the upper gallery, we sometimes confirm the plaudits of the theatre by a single stroke, or join in them by our less vociferous commendations: but we sometimes dissent; and, when the magic of the scene is at an end, when the voice of fashion, the influence of a performer, or the splendor of the decorations lose their effect, we find our 'still voice' confirmed by the equally silent fiat of public approbation. In the present instance, we cannot, unreservedly, either commend or blame. The play possesses merits and faults, which we shall point out or praise with equal impartiality.

The Count is represented as a man of rank and of dignity; but with the high sense of honour which shrinks from suspicion, with the dignity that shuns familiarity with vice or with folly, he unites the meaner pride of rank, of family, and personal importance. He seems designed to be of this mixed character; and while, in his better moments, he is an object of respect, we are interested for his reformation, and hear of every instance of his good fortune with pleasure.

'The

'The comedy of *Le Glorieux*, by M. Nericault Desfouches, is the basis on which *The School for Arrogance* has been formed. From that I have taken the plan, several of the characters, and some of the scenes. Difference of arrangement, additional incidents, and what I deem to be essential changes of character, have all been introduced. The count has but little resemblance to the original: Lucy and Mac Dermot none. Lady Peckham is a new character, and was first suggested by a friend; who, conceiving highly of the contrast which exists in life, between the pride of rank and the pride of riches, industriously sought to stimulate and rouse my imagination.'

Mr. Holcroft deserves, therefore, much credit for this well drawn and well supported character, and it is very judiciously contrasted with the vulgar city lady, who thinks every magnificence exhausted in the Monument, and every elegance in a lord mayor's dinner. Characters of this kind are frequent on the stage; but in no instance is the folly so conspicuous as in the contrast before us. We shall select the scene where the Count, compelled to apologise for his former rudeness, expresses all the discordant feelings which real pride, and a forced respect, must excite. The lady is drawn with equal spirit, and expresses, with great fidelity, the triumph of vulgar superiority.

'Enter Lady Peckham.'

'Count. Madam [*Bowing.*].—When I last had the honour—of a—an interview with your ladyship, I—I am afraid—I might possibly be inadvertently betrayed into—some warmth.

'Lady P. Why, sir, seeing as how my son tells me you are a real nobleman, and not von of the ristraff fortin hunter fellers, if so be as you thinks fit to make proper 'pologies, why, Sir, I—I—

'Count. To a lady, madam, every apology may be made. Any concessions therefore—

'Lady P. Oh, sir, as for that there, I wants nothing but what is right and downright. And I supposes, sir, you are wery villin to own that an outlandish foriner must think himself highly honoured, by a connexion with an English family of distinction. Because that I am sure you cannot deny. And that it vus a most perumptery purceedin in you, being as you are but a Frenchman, or of an Irish generation at best, to purtend to the hand and fortin of miss Loocy Peckham, vithout my connivance.

'Count. Madam!

'Lady P. As I tells you, sir, I am upright and downright. So do you, or do you not?

'Count.

‘ *Count.* Madam !— I am ready to acknowledge that the charms of your daughter’s mind, and person, are equal to any rank!

‘ *Lady P.* Her mind and person, indeed ! No, sir ! Her family and fortune !—And I believe, sir, now you are come to your proper senses, you will own too that no outlandish lord, whatever, can uphold any comparage with the Peckham family and connexions !

‘ *Count.* [*With great warmth and rapidity.*] Madam, though I am ready to offer every excuse which can reasonably be required, for any former inadvertency ; yet, madam, no consideration whatever shall lead me—I say, madam, my own honour, a sense of what is due to my ancestors, myself, and to truth—that is, madam—No ! The world, racks, shall not force me to rank my family with yours.

‘ *Lady P.* Why, sir ! What is it that you are talking of ? Rank my family with yours, indeed ! Marry come up ! No, to be sure ! I say rank ! I know very well what is my due : and that there, sir, is the thing that I would have you for to know ! And I insist upon it, sir, that you shall know it ; and shall own that you know it ; or, sir, I rewoke every thing I have condescended to specify with my son ! So do you, sir, or do you not ?

‘ *Count.* Madam—What, Madam ?

‘ *Lady P.* Do you depose, that outlandish forinners are all beggars, and slaves ; and that von Englishman is worth a hundred Frenchmen ?

‘ *Count.* Madam whatever you please. [*Bows.*]

‘ *Lady P.* Oh ! Very well !—And do you purdict that this here city is the first city in the whole world ?

‘ *Count.* I—I believe it is, Madam.

‘ *Lady P.* Oh ! Very well !—And that the Monument, and the Tower, and Lununbridge, are most magnanimous and superfluous buildings ?

‘ *Count.* Madam—

‘ *Lady P.* I’ll have no circumbendibus ! Are they, or are they not ?

‘ *Count.* Your ladyship is pleased to say so. [*Bows.*]

‘ *Lady P.* To be sure I do ! Because I know it to be true ! And that the wretches in foreign parts are all fed upon bran ; seeing as how there is no corn ?

‘ *Count.* As your ladyship thinks ! [*Bows.*]

‘ *Lady P.* And that the whole country could not purchase von lord mayor’s feast ?

‘ *Count.* I—Certainly not, Madam : they have few turtle and no aldermen.

‘ *Lady P.* Ah ! A pretty country, indeed ! No aldermen !
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And that it would be the hite of purfumption, in you, for to go for to fet yourself up as my equal? Do you own that?

‘ *Count.* [*Passionately*] No, Madam!

‘ *Lady P.* Sir!

‘ *Count.* No force, no temptation shall induce me so to dishonour my great progenitors!

‘ *Lady P.* Why, sir!

‘ *Count.* My swelling heart can hold no longer! Honour revolts at such baseness! Patience itself cannot brook a fallacy so glaring! No! Though destruction were to swallow me, I would assert my house’s rights, and its superior claims!

‘ *Lady P.* Wery vell, sir! Wastly vell, sir! And I would have you for to know, sir, while my name is my lady Peckham, I will dissent my houses rights, and claims! That I despises all!—Ha! ha!—Ha! Wery fine, indeed! Am I to be sent here to be hector’d, and huffed, and bluffed, and bullied, and bounced, and blustered, and brow-beat, and scoffed, and scouted, and—Ha!’

The city knight differs little from his predecessors on the stage; sir Samuel Sheepy is an inconsistent compound of respectful timidity to the ladies, and determined courage in other situations. In the closet he is far from appearing a character well drawn, or properly supported. Mac Dermot too, the honest Irishman, is much too servile. He ought to have been represented as the only person who dared to tell the count of his failings; and his frankness should have been rendered supportable to the haughty arrogance of his master, from long attachment and tried fidelity. Edmund and Lydia are a pair of insipid lovers, and the count’s father seems to have adopted a plan equally unreasonable and impolitic. But as almost the whole business of the play consists in the scenes between the count, sir Paul, and lady Peckham, the little errors in the other parts are far from being glaring or injurious to the pleasure which the spectators and the readers will feel from the whole.

The story is well conducted, and the attention very artfully kept up; in short, without the assistance of stage-machinery, the modern method of elevating and surprising; without the assistance of the painter, or more than common aid from the scene-shifters, this comedy will interest and please the attentive spectator: the principal errors seem to be copied from the original.

A Treatise on the Digestion of Food. By G. Fordyce, M. D.
F. R. S. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Johnson. 1791.

THIS Treatise contains the substance of the Gulstonian Lectures, lately delivered by Dr. Fordyce. The subject which he chose was digestion, and it is but common justice

March, 1791.

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to declare, that this function has never hitherto been so comprehensively, so clearly, and so accurately explained. We mean not to say that our author's theory, or rather his deduction from facts, is wholly unexceptionable; for we may perhaps shew that, in his examination of the secreted fluids, he has not sufficiently attended to the state of the air in each, and, in his account of digestion, has not allowed that degree of dissolvent power, which the fluids of that cavity really possess. In his eagerness to destroy the system of solution, he seems to have overlooked it too much.

The first part of the work before us contains an anatomical description of the stomach, which appears to be very correct and judicious. Dr. Fordyce has, however, omitted to remark, that, when the stomach is distended, the greater and lesser curvature may, from their situation, be more properly styled the anterior and posterior curvatures; a circumstance of more importance, as it gives a more satisfactory explanation of the appearance and feeling of the stomach through the integuments, when distended with wind. The structure and situation of the pylorus are explained with singular precision, and it will be obvious that, when the stomach is distended, any passage through the pylorus is proportionally more difficult. In cases of flatus, Dr. Fordyce thinks that the stomach is sometimes distended unequally. When this happens, however, it is connected with spasm in that organ, and is of short duration. The description of the interior surface of the stomach and duodenum, as they appear through magnifiers, we must transcribe.

‘Anatomists have commonly considered this (the cellular substance within the muscular coat) as two coats, calling it the nervous and villous coat. But as far as I can judge, it seems to be nothing but the cellular membrane growing thicker and thicker, until on the inside of the stomach it becomes sufficiently firm and close to retain the substances contained in the cavity of the stomach; so that I should conceive that there is, properly speaking, no smooth or fibrous interior coat of the stomach at all. Observations made with microscopes are extremely subject to fallacy from deception of vision. On viewing the surface of the stomach with magnifiers of different kinds, and with different lights, and when the stomach is of different degrees of moisture or dryness, the appearances are extremely different. The manner in which I have been able to get it most distinct, was by placing a small portion of the interior part upon a small circular plate of ivory, with the surface outward and in view; this small plate of ivory was fixed in the centre of a circular plate of glass, which fitted the stage of a compound microscope, and a silver concave mirror was applied at the object end
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of the microscope to reflect the light, as usual in viewing opaque bodies. When the surface was moderately moist, there appeared a number of fine thin membranes, crossing one another so as to form a number of irregular cells; and the surfaces of each of these membranes were covered again by finer and smaller membranes again crossing one another, so as to form lesser and shallower cells, so as very much to increase the interior surface; and this appearance accords with what is seen by the naked eye, or a glass of little magnifying power, and very much resembles a piece of pumice-stone broken. In these cells a number of small white unequal globules were seen lying, but detached; nor could there be seen distinctly any glandular appearance.'

'The interior surface of this intestine (the duodenum) has very different appearances when viewed in a microscope according to the application of that instrument, in many views being subject to optical deception. Some part of it has been described by authors as a prodigious quantity of small tubercles; this appearance, however, arises from its being dry, or viewed with a side light. Near the pylorus, when viewed in the manner I have already described, it looks very similar to the stomach, only with small ridges which seem to run longitudinally. With an opaque microscope, nothing like pores or glands can be seen in it. Lower down, the substance appears somewhat more polished, and transverse ridges become more considerable, till the appearance of what are called *valvulae coniventes*, gradually become more complete.'

Our author adds some remarks on the stomachs of fowls and other animals. He has observed, contrary to the opinion of Spalanzani, not only that chickens pick up stones, but that whatever be the proportion of stones mixed with the meat, they only pick up a certain quantity; and during the time of laying they invariably prefer some calcareous substance, particularly pieces of old mortar. If deprived of it, they generally sicken, and often die.

Dr. Fordyce proceeds to the consideration of fluids applied to the food during digestion, and engages in a disquisition partly chemical and partly physiological, in which we must follow him. The word *mucilage* he employs in a new sense, to distinguish a class of substances not hitherto accurately discriminated. Mucilages are capable of being combined with water; but their state of viscosity does not always depend on the proportion of fluid, for heat will coagulate them, without evaporating the water; and, when coagulated by heat, water will not restore the fluidity. Starch, and the white of an egg are instances of it, both in the vegetable and animal kingdom. Other substances will also produce the coagulation, which do not act, as in some chemical experiments, by abstracting wa-

ter; for a mucilage, coagulated by abstracting water, may be restored to its former state by fresh fluid, but when changed by a coagulant, though in appearance undistinguishable, it resists all the powers of that fluid. A simple instance of this is the curd formed by a rennet, which no boiling will ever bring back *permanently* to the state of milk, whatever proportion of water be added.

Of a mucilage of this kind all animal solids and fluids consist, and it is only necessary to consider what proportion of water, or what other substances, are added from those fluids by which digestion is performed. The saliva, our author observes, consists of this mucilage dissolved in water with some of the neutral salts, particularly the ammoniacal. It is miscible in water, and probably coagulable by the gastric juice. We may add, that the air seems to be in a loose state, and easily disengaged from it; but we cannot clearly say how far this influences the digestion, though it is highly probable that, in the first coagulation of food in the stomach, air is disengaged from it, or from the fluids applied to it, which is afterwards reabsorbed. The vapours which appeared in Dr. Macbride's experiments, our author attributes to the viscosity of the saliva preventing the air-bubbles from escaping. It is probable, in his opinion, that the neutral salts in the saliva are in too small quantity to have much effect in digestion. The gastric juice is a mucilaginous, tasteless, colourless, coagulating fluid, independent of any acidity, and adheres in the cells described, so as with difficulty to be washed out by water, or even a large flow of that fluid sometimes thrown out from the exhalents. The mucus is another fluid, more for defence probably than use, and for the description of its properties Dr. Fordyce refers to his Thesis published at Edinburgh. The other fluids, particularly the blackish matter thrown up in some complaints, seemingly of the stomach, are not natural to it, but the effect of disease, and therefore of little importance in this disquisition. We may perhaps be allowed to suggest that, since this black matter is neither bile nor blood, as we have often had occasion to prove by experiment, it may be worth while to enquire in such cases how far it may be an increased secretion from other organs, absorbed, and thrown on the stomach from its glands. In the human body there is a black fluid in the bronchial glands, and a fluid, not greatly unlike it, in the renal capsules. If the evacuation is connected with complaints in either organ, it may lead us to employ more appropriated remedies than we have hitherto used: in one instance, we observed it connected with a morbid affection of the lungs; but this we mention as a hint only in passing on.

The bile is the next assistant to the more perfect digestion
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in the duodenum. Dr. Fordyce thinks that the use of the peculiar apparatus for its secretion is not known, since blood, drawn from the vena portarum, does not essentially differ from other venous blood; the usual difference, he *seems to hint*, is only owing to the less proportion of water in the venous blood. But that we are right in attributing this opinion to him we will not be positive; it adds, however, one instance to those which we mentioned, where he neglects the aerial changes; for one evident cause of difference is well known: blood sent to the liver from veins, instead of being made to pass through the lungs, cannot have thrown off its portion of phlogiston, or received its proper quantity of vital air, and the consequence is obvious: the bile is the most phlogistic fluid in the whole system. The bile, our author observes, is a mucilaginous fluid, but its mucilage is decomposed only, not coagulated by acids and their compounds. This criterion is a very remarkable one, and ought to be kept in view. Coagulation takes place exclusively in the stomach; the subsequent operations are very different; and the mucilage of the bile is in part added to the substances digested, while acids, which, from the imperfection of the digesting powers of the stomach, may escape from that organ, are evidently neutralised by this fluid. The resinous part, our author alleges, is probably thrown down and evacuated, while its purer oily part may add some useful portion to the chyle. The pancreatic juice resembles the saliva. Its mucilage is not a coagulating one.

The substances capable of being employed for nourishment next engage our author's attention. Vegetables are nourished by air and water only, and animals, feeding on such vegetables, are highly nutritious. Fish, though adapted for occasionally digesting animal food, may be long sustained by water and air alone; for gold-fish lived in distilled water, joined with atmospheric or pure air, grew and discharged much feculent matter when the vessel was carefully closed. Of vegetables thus formed, the mucilaginous part is only nutritious, as the oily and resinous portions seem not to contribute to any insect's food, except when mixed with the mucilage: in this state, poisons, the most deleterious to man, are devoured by some animals. Animal substances consist, in a great degree, of mucilage and water; but to these are added oils, essential and expressed, and resins, all which are, or may be in certain instances, nutritious. Dr. Fordyce mentions the insect which lives on cantharides, and destroys the whole fly, but whose fluids are perfectly bland. Of the nutritious substances useful to man, the farinaceous seeds are the principal, particularly wheat and rice; for which in different countries similar seeds are substituted. These contain large proportions of mucilage, with some sugar, a fer-

mentable mucilage, and a little astringent matter between the husk and the grain. Other kinds of nourishment are taken from the legumina, which contain more astringent matter, corrected sometimes by cultivation, and sometimes by the culinary art. In nuts the farinaceous matter is confined by the oil, so as not to be separable in the form of starch; but, in some fruits and in different roots, it is very copious and easily separated.

Farinaceous matter consists of mucilage combined with water, so as to become solid, and seems to be contained in very minute cells, in the form of a fine powder. It is soluble in water from 160° to 180° of Fahrenheit, and coagulated above the latter degree. It is coagulated for food by means of heat, of alcohol, *alum*, or other substances. Sugar, another vegetable substance, is a mucilage; but, in fruits, joined with that species of mucilage ready to fall into fermentation. Expressed oils are combined generally with mucilage, and we suspect contain this substance as a component part. Another nutritious substance is gum; and it is a mucilage of a peculiar kind, not fermentable, nor preventing fermentation. Another peculiar mucilage, whose properties are little known, is found in the unripe cucumber. The nutritious parts of animals are the mucilaginous, of which the bulk of the body consists: the animal mucilage may be procured by coagulation from the serum, and is pretty certainly the same with the gluten of the blood. Mucilage, whether procured from vegetables or animals, is the same, in Dr. Fordyce's opinion, and the function of digestion consists only in separating the component parts of the substances swallowed, and re-arranging them in a new form, separating, he should have added, what would be injurious to the system. But we must no farther anticipate our author's doctrine.

Whatever the species of animal, or however heterogeneous the food, the chyle is uniform, and seemingly the same.

‘The chyle consists of three parts; a part which is fluid and contained in the lacteals, but coagulates on extravasation. Whether the vessels act upon it so as to prevent it from coagulating; that is, so as to keep it dissolved in water and fluid; or whether the fluid itself is alive, and coagulates by death in consequence of extravasation, is an argument which I shall not here enter into. The second part consists of a fluid which is coagulable by heat, and in all its properties that have been observed is consonant to the serum of the blood. The third part consists of globules, which render the whole white and opaque. These globules have been supposed by many to be expressed oil; but this has not been proved. Neither has it been perfectly demonstrated that sugar is contained
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in the chyle, although it has been made very probable. What renders these points difficult to determine is, the very small quantity of chyle that can be collected from any animal, not more than an ounce or two at the very most, from one even of the largest animals. However, the part coagulating on extravasation, the part agreeing with serum in its qualities; the globular part, which in some animals, but not in quadrupeds, exists without giving whiteness to the chyle alone, or along with sugar, form the essential parts of the chyle.'—Some substances may enter the blood with the chyle; but the lacteals seem to have a discriminating power, and reject what will probably be injurious to the system.

In explaining the process of digestion, Dr. Fordyce takes some pains to show, that division only cannot change the nature of the substance, however minute the division may be, as well as that in all probability no two particles of matter are in contact. This last opinion he seems to claim as his own; but we adopted it long before we ever saw Dr. Fordyce, from father Boscovich. He is willing to separate it from the idea of matter consisting only of attracting and repelling points, because 'a point is nothing, and of which therefore nothing can be predicated, or nothing can have no qualities.' It would not be difficult to show that this is not solid logic, that we predicate constantly of secondary qualities which have no existence but to the eye or the mind; and that whatever produces an impression on the senses has, so far as we are concerned, a real existence. We mean not to dispute the principal position: we are convinced that, admitting the existence of particles of matter, they are, in the densest bodies, far from being in contact; but we are equally convinced that it is impossible, in these circumstances, to render the doctrine of attracting and repelling points absurd or improbable.

Dr. Fordyce next shows, very satisfactorily, that mere solution will not of itself produce chyle, even admitting a chemical change in the food in consequence of solution, for the chyle is in every instance similar, and the menstruum must be necessarily similar in bodies of the same species; but, from the most dissimilar foods, chyle, undistinguishable by the most accurate tests, is usually procured. The system of a vinous, acetous, and putrefactive fermentation, or of a fermentation of either kind, has long since been exploded. There is then but one resource: the component parts of muscular organs, and of chyle appear to be the same; and the component parts of putrid farinacea and chyle are also similar. If then we admit that digestion consists in breaking down the mass, and recombining its component parts, it will remain to enquire, whether the powers of the human stomach are capable of producing this change.

The first object of our author is to examine the effects of the living power of the stomach on its contents. These are coagulation and an antiputrescent power. By the first it seems to fix the substance in the stomach till the requisite changes shall be produced, and by the second to prevent the bad consequences that would result from the delay of putrescent matter in a heat so great as that of the stomach. In this situation the solvent power of the gastric juice has probably some effect; for we see, after the coagulation of milk or of mucilage, that the consistency and cohesion of the coagulum diminishes. In this state the new attractions and repulsions take place, for what other cause is there for a change in this respect? Why do not the parts combine again, when the cause of separation is removed into the same body? Indeed by not admitting of this solvent power, Dr. Fordyce is almost compelled to allow some degree of fermentation in the stomachs of herbaceous animals.

The foundation of our author's system, and the great step which he has made is, in showing the necessity of this coagulation, and the connection between this part of the process and due nutrition. We have seen and often insisted on it in milk; but, by investigating the properties of the animal mucilage, our author has rendered the system at once comprehensive, accurate, and beautiful. We trust we have not injured this fair fabric, by adding the solvent powers of the fluids of the stomach, which we think sufficiently proved from Spalanzani's Experiments.

The next step is the progress of the food into the duodenum; and Dr. Fordyce, with his usual accuracy, shows that this is a subservient and a secondary process. If the digestion in the stomach has not succeeded properly, that of the duodenum will not supply it. Bile, it is said, is not absolutely necessary to the formation of chyle, and our author has not clearly shown what its use is. The chyle is formed in the duodenum, and we have remarked that the bile and pancreatic juices do not contain coagulating mucilages. Whether they supply the oily matter, or animalize the chyle in a certain degree, we know not. The vast apparatus for the secretion of bile seems to show that it has a more important office; but the loss of strength, and the apparent acrimony in the fluids of persons labouring under jaundice, may as well be attributed to the return of the bile as to imperfect animalization. On this point our author leaves us in the dark.

If we may be allowed in this instance also to add a hint, we should observe that, as the food comes from the stomach, it appears still a heterogeneous mass. Chyle is not formed, or it is encumbered with different extraneous substances. May
not

not the bile and pancreatic juice therefore, applied in succession, be useful in separating this extraneous matter or precipitating what may be noxious in the new compound?

Dr. Fordyce gives us reason to expect that he will pursue this subject dietetically, and enquire how far different foods are adapted to the organs of digestion. We could wish he would also pursue it pathologically. He affords a very good foundation for explaining the phenomena of vomiting, symptoms of indigestion, and the very various kinds of diarrhoea. But we can only follow authors; we must not expatiate beyond the bounds which they prescribe, or presume to add much to their speculations.

*Collectanea de Rebus Hibernicis. (Continued from Vol. LXX.
p. 549.)*

THE twelfth Number of this Collection is extremely curious. The preface, extended to near 170 pages, contains many remarkable coincidences of the Irish and Oriental languages, and the 'scattered limbs' of a system too much divided, and thrown together with great carelessness. It is, however, vast and splendid in its design, and singularly curious in the execution. But, besides that it consists of too many detached facts to admit of a regular analysis, truth and error are too intimately united, to allow us to examine it at length within the compass of articles like those of our Journal. We must content ourselves therefore with colonel Vallancey's outline.

The Pelasgi were, he observes, Scythians, for 'Scuthæ was the Greek name of the Pelasgi.' These people, or at least one branch of them, the Magogian Scythians, settled in Assyria, soon united with the Phœnicians in different attempts, and probably in forming distant colonies. The colonies seem, from this account, to have been numerous, and to have extended from this part of Asia in every direction. Among the rest they are supposed to have been sent to Etruria and Ireland, conveying the Phœnician language and manners, which, when compared in the different dialects, greatly illustrate each other. The etymological part of this examination forms the great bulk of the preface, which displays coincidences so singular and striking as to have afforded us the greatest entertainment. We draw, however, a very different conclusion from our author, and think that he has only proved that the Celtic language was; at least, very near the original language, varied perhaps in its different dialects at the dispersion of mankind, on the building of Babel, and carried to different parts of the world, many centuries before the Phœnicians passed the Pillars of Hercules. If we admit our author's system, Assyria must

must have been this central spot, and we may, in that case, allow that Ireland was peopled from it, because, after the flood, the western world at least received its inhabitants from thence. That the inhabitants of Ireland were the immediate progeny of these first people, is gratuitously assumed; since, as we have said, the language is very generally diffused, and no written records can possibly remain. If Cadmus was really a Canaanite or Phœnician, and taught literary writing to the Greeks: if also, he was one of the Canaanites expelled by Joshua, it cannot prove that the Irish were a Phœnician colony, since there is not the smallest evidence that the Irish were acquainted with the art of writing till after the time of Patrick. Many of our author's reveries are very unworthy of being mixed with judicious discussion; that the Irish had Druids; that Homer's Poems were translated from the original language, which was the parent of, and almost the same as, the Irish; the hint that the oracle of Dodona was in Ireland, &c. add not to the credit of the author or the value of his work. The Druidism of Ireland, and its Phœnician origin, are in every respect inconsistent, as our author himself in effect acknowledges; and, except in the general etymological outline, which contains only proofs of the vast extent of one primordial language, we cannot agree with our author, or admit the validity of his arguments. Even that the Pelasgi were Phœnicians, is not very probable; that the Pelasgi were those Phœnicians who migrated to Ireland, is not supported by any satisfactory evidence: etymology, of all other proofs, is the most delusive.

The subjects of this Number are, Allhallow-Eve, the Gule of August, or Lammas-Day, Description of the Banqueting-Hall, of Tamar, or Tara, and the Kiss of Salutation, an Eastern Tale. The discussions are chiefly etymological, connecting the Irish names with the eastern languages, with some account of the different superstitions connected with these seasons. The Irish, our author contends, differs from the Welsh, though he admits each to be a dialect of the Celtic, the one corrupted, the other *preserving its purity in consequence of later oriental connections*.

The conclusion is professedly miscellaneous. As Bethsean was founded by the Scythians, and said by Joshua to be in the possession of the Canaanites, or Phœnicians, from whence the children of Manassah could not drive them out: in short, as these reputed ancestors of the Irish excelled in the manufacture of linen, in which they are followed by the *present* Hibernians, our author examines the various technical terms in each dialect, and finds in them a very great resemblance; but the most curious part of this 'conclusion' is what relates

to the arithmetic numerals. Col. Vallancey thinks that they were brought to England from Arabia, through Spain, and that Ireland learned them from Spain, as it did not adopt the changes made by the English. Of the other etymological researches in this miscellaneous Collection, that which relates to the Irish cries (vulgo howls), and the funeral ceremonies, is most interesting; and what relates to the mariner's compass, supposed to be known even in the days of Homer, is most whimsical and visionary. The analogy of the ancient Etruscan and Irish is also a little fanciful, but contains some observations of curiosity.

The third volume concludes with a second letter from Mr. O'Connor, on the Heathen State and Ancient Topography of Ireland; and, if we take a little from the reputed antiquity, and some opinions respecting the Irish Druids, it will be found to contain observations of importance. A description of the ancient city of Ardglass, a strong fortress prior to the fourteenth century, perhaps the work of some of the early English invaders of Ireland, is added.

The first Number of the fourth volume is introduced, as usual, by an extensive preface, in which many parts of the former argument, with additional etymological proofs, are inserted. The Thracian origin, and the Thracian Cabiri, the prototypes of the Irish Cabiri, who are supposed to be the same with the Irish Druids, are the most curious subjects examined in this preface. The original colonies, it is observed, introduced the fire-worship; and Cormac's Chapel, adjoining to the tower of Cashel, is supposed to be one of these remaining buildings. Cormac reigned in the beginning of the tenth century; and O'Brien says there is sufficient evidence that Cormac only repaired the chapel: the tradition at Cashel is, that it was a heathen temple. Such are the usual arguments of the *Collectanea*: O'Brien's evidence we know not, and, if we did admit the fact and the tradition, how is this connected with the fire-worship of Zoroaster?

The first part of the memoir relates to the Jodhan Moiran, the breast-plate of judgment. The gold breast-plate, found in the bog, seems to have obtained this appellation from fancy: the story is evidently a fiction; and, if colonel Vallancey pleases, an eastern one. If the judge gave a erroneous decision, it would close round the neck, like the ring mentioned in the Arabian Nights Entertainments. The supposition, however, leads to a discussion respecting the Urim and Thummim, which we think, with professor Dathe, and our author, were the precious stones; but to these some peculiar virtues were undoubtedly ascribed. Aaron's dress would not have been so particularly pointed out, if some attributes were not connected

connected with the different parts. Dr. Geddes supposes these words were applied to the emblematic figures representing knowledge and integrity. If these were consulted, it was like the demon of Socrates, by silent suggestion. The Liath Meifich, another magical instrument, is also described. A plate of some images, which our author supposes to be Etruscan, an account of the Charter Horn, of the Harp of Brien Boiromh, who died about the beginning of the eleventh century, and many different remains of antiquity, are subjoined. As usual, much truth and error are mixed, and it is curious to see the common broches of the middle ages, and the common Chinese coin, dropped perhaps within a few years, considered as eastern amulets and talismans, or as containing useful information. The Chinese letters are said to be the old Syriac.

Another Letter from Mr. O'Connor, on some Parts of the Ancient Irish History follows, with some Queries relating to a complete History of Ireland, and Dr. Macbride's Account of the Revival of Snails, published in the Philosophical Transactions.

The last Number is a recapitulation of the whole argument respecting the Antiquity of the Irish, their Eastern Origin, with a Defence of the Representations of the Bards. From this Number we shall more particularly notice some of the more important observations; and, since we knew of this repetition, we have stepped more hastily over some of the former Numbers than we should otherwise have done. It is the work of colonel Vallancey.

The introduction contains the general system of eastern migration, of which we shall select the substance.

'In the following pages, it will appear, that the body of Magogian Scythians, of whom we treat, were a polished people before they left Asia; the first astronomers, navigators, and traders, after the flood, and courted by the Arabs, the Canaanites, the Jews, and Egyptians, to settle among them. That, from their first settlement in Armenia, they soon passed down the Euphrates to the Persian Gulph, round the Indian Ocean, to the Red Sea, up the coast of the Mediterranean almost to Tyre. The Greeks knew them by the names of the Phœnicians of the Red Sea, by *Ithyophagi* and *Troglodytæ*: in Scripture they are called *Am Siim* or Ship people, and *Naphuth Dori* or Maritime folks.

'These soon mixed with the Dadanites and Canaanites, allied with them, and were absorbed under the general name of Phœnicians; yet still among themselves were distinguished as the sons of Japhet *Gadul*. These assertions the author of this Vindication thinks can be well supported by sacred and profane history, and with great deference submits them to the learned reader.'

In other respects, col. Vallancey does not materially differ from the system of Mr. Pinkerton; we mean so far as relates to the Goths and Scythians, and he seems to acknowledge some prior inhabitants, which we are probably at liberty to call Celts. The great difference between our author's system, and that which, in our review of Mr. Pinkerton's work, we found reason to consider as the true one, is this. Our author supposes these colonies to have been in a highly polished state, possessing the arts and sciences in perfection, which they at once carried to this distant island, and they immediately flourished in the new soil with vigour and luxuriance. Independent of the deficiency of every proof, and of reasons to show why they undertook this extensive voyage, when more genial climates were within their reach, or why they migrated at all, their refinement and civilization, are by no means shown. From this spot colonies undoubtedly spread, first into the nearer countries; and next, when they were overstocked, into more remote ones, till at last they reached the western Thule, which was at this remote period much larger, for the sea has greatly gained on it. In their progressive journey they found aboriginal inhabitants, the descendants of those preserved by the ark, or those whom the deluge may not have reached. These were incorporated with the new conquerors, preserving, from some accidental superiority, their language, particularly in names of mountains, rivers, and things of more general use, or were pressed on by them to more distant climates. This view accounts for the coincidences of languages, explains every authentic narrative, except the reputed Irish MSS. whose authenticity their best historians begin to dispute. Our author proves no more than what we have just observed, adding some other very doubtful and suspicious etymologies. Of these we shall now add a specimen.

• But the true derivation of the name *Sacæ* and *Scuthi*, i. e. shipmen, navigators, or swimmers, I think, is from the Oriental שָׁחַ Sachu, or שְׁחָתָה *Sachuth, Natatio*, from שָׁחָה *Sachah*, or שָׁחָה *Sachah natavit*; Syriac שָׁחָה *Sacha natavit*, remigavit aquis: it also signifies profunditas; and shields being made of wattles covered with hides, we have שָׁחָה *Shacha*, שְׁחָתָה *Shacheta*, Gabata, Scutella, whence the Irish *Sciata*, *Sciuiha*, a shield, a twig basket, or any thing concave like the ancient target. The word is used, in the Oriental tongues, to signify whatever acts in, or upon, water; its signifies also to wash, שָׁחָה *Sacha*, lavit, ablutus fuit, quia natator non natat, nisi lavet (Schindler.) מִי־שָׁחָה *Mi Sachua*, navigable rivers, deep waters, which cannot be passed without a boat, or by swimming.—Quas sub pede transire non poterat, sed natando trajiciebant. מִסְחָתָה *Miscutha*, balneum,

and hence the Scythian or Irish *Scuth*, *Scudb*, a ship, the Ægyptian *σκεῖτια* *skeitia*, rates, naves planæ (Kircher) and the Turkish *Saica*, Navigii genus, vulgò Saïque, (Du Cange). Scytho Scandicè, *Skeid*, Lang baat ella Scuta, Navis longa. Ibid. Skaid, Skana, Skuta, rodarferior (Verelius. Lex.) In monumentis Anglo Saxonice Navigii genus nominatur *Sceith*, appellatum, sed quod hoc pertinere, non autumvero (Ihre). *Sceith* a *σκυτος*, Corium ut navigia corio inducta (Junius).

‘In like manner, the words signifying a hide, do also signify a boat, as *σκιβαι*, Coriarii; *σκιβοπολις*, Coriarii Urbs, Scythopolis. In Irish, Bolgh, Bolo, a hide from בלע *bolgh* tegere, whence בלון *Bolun*, a hide; and this word gave name to the Belgi or Scythians, on the Caspian Sea, and to the river Bolga or Volga, because inhabited by these Scythians, who passed westward; whence *Phlugh* in the Armenian, *Fluk* Arabicè, *Vlog* Sclavonicè, and *Filuka* in Italian, a ship. Gr. B. *βαλκη*, Navis, Scapha.’

Our readers will perhaps think with us, that in this way any conclusion can be drawn from any premises. The old Irish was, in our author’s opinion, the Ogham, of which we have already spoken, and the great support of the whole is the Psalter of Cashel, whose authenticity and contents have been so well examined by bishop Stillingsfleet, in his ‘Origines Britannicæ,’ p. 266, &c. that we need not add any thing to his observations. In short, we must repeat, that we have found no evidence of any manuscripts previous to the time of St. Patrick, or any proof that the information, prior to that time, was conveyed in any other way than by tradition.

The Genealogical Tables of the Irish Colonists, and the Topographical Names of Ireland, are the first objects of our author’s attention. They are full of the fancies of a Phœnician race, carrying the antiquity of the Irish monarchs up to Noah. Then come the various expeditions, from Partholan to Milesius, extracted from Keating, with remarks sometimes extended to a great length, and generally containing many curious and ingenious observations, by col. Vallancey. If we had found a single argument which, on a fair examination, would have supported the antiquity of the Irish, we would have given it with its fullest force. The proofs from Spanish authors only show, that the historians of that country speak of a report, or sometimes assert more positively, that Ireland, at least in part, was peopled from Spain. In fact, we have formerly allowed that colonies from Spain contributed to the population of Ireland; but, in general, it was peopled with its present race, from the west of Britain and from ancient Scandinavia. One enterprising author of Spain is willing to make his

his country the source of population to every kingdom in the neighbourhood, viz. Britain, Gaul, Rome, &c. &c.; but his fancies we suspect will not become very fashionable. The chapter, which relates to Britain and Ireland, is transcribed; he there, however, seems only to claim the Silures and Brigantes as of Spanish origin. Some passages of the conclusion we may select.

‘ We have taken upon us to say, that our Magogian Scythians were the original Phœnicians—it will be asked, where are the remains of the fine arts of the Phœnicians to be met with in this country—where are the temples, the colonades, &c.?—to this I answer, that the Greeks confounded the Phœnicians with the Canaanites; and that our Scythians were the carriers of their merchandize, their navigators; were acknowledged as subjects, but never admitted a share in the government, or to the rank of noblesse. They had the use of letters, a knowledge of astronomy, of marine astronomy in particular, and of navigation; but had no knowledge of the fine arts, their religion forbid it. If the King of Great Britain was to send his whole navy to North America, with orders never to return, would the settlements formed by our admirals or captains, or by their crews, ever produce an elegant piece of architecture; yet every private man on board had seen St. Paul’s, and Whitehall: could they form a column, or mould a cornice?

‘ The Phœnicians sent a numerous colony to Gaul:—Where are the Tyrian or Sidonian monuments of grandeur to be found in that country? yet the Gauls learned the terms of state, and of the military art from the Phœnicians, and adopted them. Hence Bochart has been misled, to think that the language of the Gauls had a great affinity with the Tyrian, (i. e. Canaanitish) but all those words, produced by Bochart, are as much Irish as Canaanitish; yet no language differed more in syntax than the Phœnician Irish or Berla-Pheni and the Canaanitish. The dictionaries of the old Irish are almost the Dictionaries of the Chaldee Arabic and old Persic, but the grammar differs very widely.

‘ When the Scythians divided from the Persians, and settled in Touran, they did not cultivate architecture and build magnificent temples as the Persians did; yet those Touranian Scythians were a lettered people, as early as their brethren of Persia. The Scythians retained as long as possible, the Patriarchial mode of worshipping the deity in open air, and of sacrificing to him on altars of stone, where the chissel had made no impression, surrounded by pillars of unwrought stones. The Persians adopted the worship of fire in towers, and with sword in hand obliged our Scythians their ancient brethren to accept this mode of worship. We accordingly
and

find the fire tower in Ireland, and under the Persian name of *Aphrin*. We find the names of the Persian priests of the Ghebres, still existing in the Irish language; we find the Persian history, (fabulous or real) to be the history of the ancient Irish: can there be more required?'

The invasion of the Danes would have furnished a much better argument, for the destruction of the remains of art; but it rarely happens that the unpolished conquerors are not subdued by the arts of their more refined captives; and it is still less unlikely that those who were once acquainted with the arts of *luxury* should, in a more ungenial climate, neglect those of *defence*. In short, as our associate, in his review of Miss Brooke's *Reliques of the Irish Songs*, p. 26, of our last volume has so ably urged, 'If such old scholars, why so unlearned still?' As the Irish annalists were obliged to kill all the followers of Milesius, because none of the principal families were to be found in their descendents, so our author deprives his colonists of all taste and elegance, because neither is displayed in their works.

The last chapter of the *Collectanea* is on Paganism in general; on the general Plan of Idolatry, formed before the Dispersion; and on the Pagan Religion of the Ancient Irish. Col. Vallancey supposes, that Paganism had assumed some form before the dispersion of the different tribes; but this most ancient Paganism was only the worship of the most striking objects.

'The original religion of the Irish, (who were Scythians and Persians) was *Sabism*, which begun in *Chaldea* and spread into Scythia, Media, and Persia. Sabism was of two kinds, with images and without. The public religion of Sabism was the worship of *Fire*. The Chaldees were priests of Babylon, they were anciently called *Ce-pheni* and *Chalybes*. Ce-pheni signifies the *illustrious revolvers*, from פֶּן *pen*, vertere, revolvère, whence *Pan* was *Sol*, i. e. the revolver. Chalybes is from קָלָא *Kala*, comburere, whence *Caldee* a worshipper of fire. Hence the Pagan Irish explain *Phan* or *Fen*, by *Talach* and *Molock*, epithets signifying the sun and fire: and the sacrifices were named *Talachda* or *Tlaeta* from דַּלִּיקָא *dalika*, conflagratio, *dlakta* דַּקְלִיתָא the same, whence the altar near Dublin is named *Dalki* and from that altar, the village and island of *Dalky* take their names.

'Sabism with images was brought into Ireland by the Tuatha Dananim. Sabism without images or *Magism*, by the Milesians who were originally Persians and Phœnicians.—Magism was at length reformed by *Airgiodlamb*, or *Zardust* who was *Zoroaster*; and

and this was brought to Ireland by the latter colonies. Zardûst was a servant of one of the prophets, and had a knowledge of the writings of Moses; he prædicted the coming of the Messiah by the name of *Nion*, which was well known to the pagan Irish, as we have shewn'.

The name Druid comes, in col. Vallancey's opinion, from the Irish Drui (Daru, sapiens, of the Persians), and not from the British Derwydd, an oak. The probability, however, is, that the name of an appropriated religion would not be derived from an abstract term, but from a sensible object, from the circumstance most closely connected with it. The oak, our author contends, was a sacred tree in the east; but this rather confirms the British derivation, if an unlucky question did not occur, why Druidism was almost peculiar to Britain? Col. Vallancey proceeds to explain the words Bardi, or Barthes, and Saronidæ, terms synonymous, or nearly so; and Vates, prophets. The legendary tale, which accompanies this account, though in its events resembling the account given of Abraham, Sarah, and Isaac, is not so closely connected with it as to convince us that the source was the same. The peculiar paganism of the Irish affords no particular arguments to assist us in the solution of the great question of Irish antiquity.

In our review of these volumes, as they contained a part of the subject which posterior publications called on us to examine, we have chiefly attended to what is connected with these publications. We have met with no work where curious unexpected remarks, and incidental interesting information are more conspicuous; but the arguments in support of the principal question are weak and unsatisfactory. We have passed over the etymological arguments, it may seem, too contemptuously: it was, however, because this mode of argument has been much abused, and the words with their different meanings are in the present Collection vaguely and improperly employed. Our author must know, that the common interpretation of these words is frequently very different, and that, even in his own sense, they do not support his cause. In the instance quoted, the great naval power and the nautical abilities of the Phœnicians are but ill supported by the terms which imply that their ships were made of wicker-work covered with skins. The roots of currough and coriarii must at the same time convince our readers that the ships were ill adapted for distant navigations.

Transactions of the Society instituted at London for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce; with the Premiums offered in the Year 1790. Vol. VIII. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Doddsley. 1790.

WE are well pleased to see this respectable Society increasing in riches and fame, while their attention continues to be directed to useful or curious subjects. The Society still proceeds to encourage the growth of trees: every true patriot, every lover of picturesque beauty, will thank them; but the claims this year are less numerous than in preceding volumes. There seem, however, to be some respectable thriving plantations, for which the different premiums have been adjudged.

The disease of the potatoe, styled the curl, as we formerly predicted, appears to be owing to the weakness of the plant, either from the seed being exhausted in the soil, or not containing a sufficient quantity of nutriment for the young plant. Forcing potatoes by cultivation is another cause of debility occasioning the curl. The disease is said to have been first observed in 1764, at the place where the first potatoes were planted, in Lancashire; for the ship which brought them from America was wrecked on that coast. It is probable that the farmers of this country did not carefully change their seed; but so many new sorts are now produced, that the change of sort, or any considerable change of soil and situation, is sufficient. Before these varieties were known, we have seen one district lose its credit for raising good potatoes, and another gain it. The first has rose again in reputation, while its rival has declined; but at present, by a little care, good potatoes are found in almost every place, though in general they prefer the light stony ground. In a more luxuriant soil they degenerate or become curled. A *shoot* from a curled plant seems to thrive well, and not to be affected by the disease. A premium was given for the cultivation of potatoes for the purposes of feeding cattle; and it appears that heifers and calves were readily fattened on them with little other food. From one fact mentioned, it seems probable, that sheep would feed on them also. Mr. Noyes received a premium for stall-feeding horses with green food. He employed tares.

In the department of agriculture also, we have farther accounts of the cultivation of rhubarb, but no additional information respecting the management. Our eager English cultivators continue to take it up too early, and the value of the remedy will be lessened if they do not check this impatience. It should be from eight to twelve years old.

Mr. Quayle, we find, gained 110 acres, 19 perches of land, from the sea, in Dengey Hundred, in the county of Essex.

* In that neighbourhood there exists a general tradition, that at

some distant period of time, a considerable tract of country was overwhelmed by an irruption of the sea. The name of a Saxon city, Ithancestre, is preserved, which is said to have then perished. But the memorials of this calamitous event are not so well preserved, as those of the inundation on the western side of the Thames, although it could not have been long prior in point of time, or perhaps much less extensive in its devastation. Bricks are said to be sometimes raised by the fishermen dragging off this coast; and some have fancied they could discern stumps of trees in a sand-bank called the Buxey, situate at two leagues distance from the present shore.

‘No apprehensions of a similar calamity are now entertained on the coast of Dengy Hundred; bounded on the east by the Blackwater or Malden River, on the west by the Burnham river, and extending about fifteen miles, the sea has been for some centuries slowly and irregularly, but gradually retiring.’

The expence was about 850*l.* and the method employed, which appears to be judicious, is described at length. The silver medal was given to Mr. Lee, for gaining 42 acres of land at Goldhanger, in Essex, at the mouth of the river Blackwater: the expence was somewhat above 225*l.*

Mr. Lane and Mr. Manley, both of Devonshire, received a reward for the numerous stocks of bees, but not having complied with the original proposals, could not receive the full premium. We see nothing very peculiar in their management.

In chemistry, we find only the method of making yeast. A pretty strong decoction of malt, in a small quantity, will easily run into a fermentation; and if a second or a third portion, in a proper heat for this process, be added, the fermentation will proceed. It should be of the strength of ale, and in quantity about a quart. Hops added, hasten the fermentation, but give a disagreeable flavour to bread if yeast is wanted for that purpose. The malt decoction, if well secured in strong jugs, while in the beginning of its fermentation, would form reservoirs of yeast, from which, at any time, this ferment might be quickly and perfectly prepared. This we hinted at some time ago.

The quantity of silk for which a premium was offered, was produced, and it appeared to be in a very good state. Several cocoons were likewise brought, larger and heavier than any yet seen. The claimant, Mr. Salvatore Bertezen, thinks this kingdom more advantageously situated for producing silk than even Italy; for the great heats of that climate are more injurious to the worms than the moisture and cold of England. The advantages in employing women and children would undoubtedly be great; but the arguments against this attempt formerly alledged, still continue in the same force.

A description of M. Sholl's new-invented loom follows,

which is more simple and portable than the usual loom, affords the workmen more light, and admits the porry to be of any length. The gibbet is formed in the loom, and the bridge of the battons is not nailed to the block, but fixed by iron pins in the block, which go partly through the bridge, and are fastened with glue, so that the silk cannot be injured.

A new Nonius or Vernier is described by Mr. Adams, in which the divisions of a quadrant, &c. twenty inches radius, may be read off to a second or less. We know not well how to give an idea of it in fewer words than our author's own; but our astronomical readers may understand us, if we say, that as a Nonius is subdivided into aliquot parts of a degree, minus one, if these aliquot parts are still more numerous, and the deficient subdivision be of course less, the instrument will be more accurate, and in a quadrant of twenty inches radius, will be exact to less than a second.

Mr. Mocock's Jack, contrived to prevent accidents if the weight overcomes the power, differs little from the common instrument, except in having a click and ratchet to stop the motion in such emergencies. The gun-harpoon in the following accounts seem to have been successful.

Col. Dansey's instrument for draining ponds without disturbing the mud, is very convenient where it can be employed; but unless the pond is constructed for the purpose, it will be difficult to cut the horizontal adit. We would beg leave to suggest to the ingenious author, whether it would not be more convenient to turn the windlafs by wheel-work, with a click to support the oblique pipe, at any given elevation? The float at present renders it not very easy to change the elevation.

Mr. Quin has improved his hygrometer; but the description is not easily understood without referring to the account in the second volume of these Transactions. On his own principle, he might make it more perfect if he attended to what has been done lately in this way on the Continent, recorded in the Foreign Intelligence of our last volume.

In the department of colonies and trade, we have a promising account of the growth of the cinnamon-tree in Jamaica. A part of the description we shall transcribe:

' The cinnamon-plant, though (according to the account of travellers) it grows to the height of twenty or thirty feet, is, properly speaking, an arboresecent one, and not a tree of the common kind: it puts out numerous side-branches, with a dense foliage from the very bottom of the trunk; which furnishes an opportunity of obtaining a plenty of layers, and facilitates the propagation of the tree, as it does not perfect its seeds in any quantity under six or seven years; when it becomes so plentifully loaded, that a single tree is sufficient almost for a colony.

‘ The cinnamon seems to delight in a loose moist soil, and to require a southern aspect; the trees thus planted, flourishing better than others growing in loam, and not so well exposed to the sun.

‘ When healthy, it is (from layers) of a pretty quick growth, reaching in eight years the height of fifteen or twenty feet, is very spreading, and furnished with numerous branches, of a fit size for decortication. The seeds, however, are a long time in coming up, and the plants make small progress for the first year or two *.’

The most aromatic branches are those of about an inch diameter, and the cinnamon is the liber, or inner bark. The leaves are highly impregnated with the same flavour.

The rewards, the models, and the usual lists follow. Of the proposed premiums, those in agriculture are numerous and important. Among the other objects, we perceive the gold medal offered for the Natural History of any County in England; which we hope to see claimed, though without any sanguine expectations. The reward for the Cashew gum is renewed, as it is found to answer the purposes of gum Senegal in silk-dying, &c. and for facilitating this purpose, we understand the duty on its importation has been greatly diminished. The premium for senna, the growth of the British Islands in the West Indies, will hardly be claimed; and we should suspect, it might be better to limit it to any of his majesty's possessions in the East Indies. As we have found some trouble in comparing the different volumes, we would suggest to the Society, whether it might not be better to print the new offers, or any variation of the former proposals, in italics?

Voyages made in the Years 1788 and 1789, from China to the North West Coast of America. By John Meares, Esq. (Concluded from p. 10.)

THE inhabitants of the western coasts of America and of the Sandwich islands will probably become objects of importance in the future history of the commerce of this country; though at present we have only those hasty rapid glances which casual adventurers can catch, yet it is of importance to fix the ideas which they suggest, as it will be useful to correct them by future experience. Judgment is in no way so much improved as by observing errors, and particularly noticing the source from whence they proceed: we shall, therefore, pursue our copy of Mr. Meares' outline, regardless whether a future

* * The birds appear to be very fond of the berries, and will probably propagate this tree in the same way they do many others every where over the island; so that in a short time it will grow spontaneously, or without cultivation.

enquirer may smile at our presumption or commend our discernment. But it will be necessary to follow the series of our navigator's adventures.

On his arrival at Nootka island, the chiefs were absent; but they soon returned from their short campaign, singing in their usual style, though it might have gratified musical amateurs, if any scientific musician had been in the party, to have known in what scale they sang, since the diatonic is contended to be the only natural one. The chiefs, however, were friendly, and a factory was built, defended in a temporary way from sudden ill-regulated incursions. The keel of a ship was also laid, the first ever built on this coast, styled the North West America. In this attempt, and in trade, they were for a time employed, experiencing some duplicity, and the inconveniencies which the thievish disposition of the natives occasioned. They soon had reason to suspect that the natives of this coast devoured occasionally human flesh; a suspicion afterwards realised, for this custom was found not only at Nootka, but in the neighbourhood, not the effects of famine, but considered as a luxurious banquet. From farther enquiries, the Sandwich islanders appear to be unacquainted with this detestable practice. It seems to have originated with the New Zealanders, partly from necessity; to have pervaded the tropical islands of the pacific, till farther advanced in refinement and civilization they preserved only the form, the traces of a former custom; and from thence to have extended eastward to the continent. If the Sandwich islanders ever deserved the imputation, they seem to merit it no longer; but even in the old continent, if some authors are to be trusted, particularly Abdollatiff, in his History of Egypt, this Thyestean banquet has been employed in moments of emergency, and under the impulse of famine. The mild and humane Gentoo, only, lies down on the banks of the sacred river, and dies without a similar impulse.

In the progress southward, to Port Cox, and the entrance of the famous straits of John de Fuca, they meet with other unequivocal marks of the same depravity. The most opulent chief of that coast is Wicananish, and of his magnificent and royal feast we may transcribe a description.

‘ On entering the house, we were absolutely astonished at the vast area it enclosed. It contained a large square, boarded up close on all sides to the height of twenty feet, with planks of an uncommon breadth and length. Three enormous trees, rudely carved and painted, formed the rafters, which were supported at the ends and in the middle by gigantic images, carved out of huge blocks of timber. The same kind of broad planks covered the whole to keep out the rain; but they were so placed as to be removed at pleasure,

sure, either to receive the air and light, or let out the smoke. In the middle of this spacious room were several fires, and beside them large wooden vessels filled with fish-soup. Large slices of whale's flesh lay in a state of preparation to be put in similar machines filled with water, into which the women, with a kind of tongs, conveyed hot stones from very fierce fires, in order to make it boil:—heaps of fish were strewed about, and in this central part of the place, which might very properly be called the kitchen, stood large seal-skins filled with oil, from whence the guests were served with that delicious beverage.

The trees that supported the roof were of a size which would render the mast of a first-rate man of war diminutive, on a comparison with them; indeed our curiosity as well as our astonishment was on its utmost stretch, when we considered the strength that must be necessary to raise these enormous beams to their present elevation; and how such strength could be found by a people wholly unacquainted with mechanic powers. The door by which we entered this extraordinary fabric, was the mouth of one of these huge images, which, large as it may be supposed, was not disproportioned to the other features of this monstrous visage. We ascended by a few steps on the outside, and after passing this extraordinary kind of portal, descended down the chin into the house, where we found new matter for astonishment in the number of men, women, and children, who composed the family of the chief; which consisted of at least eight hundred persons. These were divided into groupes according to their respective offices, which had their distinct places assigned them. The whole of the building was surrounded by a bench, about two feet from the ground, on which the various inhabitants sat, eat, and slept. The chief appeared at the upper end of the room, surrounded by natives of rank, on a small raised platform, round which were placed several large chests, over which hung bladders of oil, large slices of whale's flesh, and proportionable goblets of blubber. Festoons of human skulls, arranged with some attention to uniformity, were disposed in almost every part where they could be placed, and were considered as a very splendid decoration of the royal apartment.

When we appeared, the guests had made a very considerable advance in their banquet. Before each person was placed a large slice of boiled whale, which, with small wooden dishes, filled with oil and fish soup, and a large muscle-shell, by way of spoon, composed the economy of the table. The servants were busily employed in preparing to replenish the several dishes as they were emptied, and the women in picking and opening the bark of a tree which served the purpose of towels. If the luxury of this entertainment is to be determined by the voraciousness with which it was eaten, and the quantity that was swallowed, we must consider

it as the most luxurious feast we had ever beheld. Even the children, and some of them were not more than three years old, possessed the same rapacious appetite for oil and blubber as their fathers. The women, however, are forbidden from eating at these ceremonies.'—These people seem to employ paint only on the days of ceremony.

The harbour in which they now were, (Port Cox) is a very commodious one. The country rich, the women modest, and in every circumstance seemingly superior to Nootka. The men were more intelligent and subtle, more cruel and savage; yet from interested motives their conduct was not very unexceptionable, though in this neighbourhood, by tribes of this race, the boat of the Imperial Eagle was surpris'd, and the officer and crew murdered, perhaps devoured. The appearance of the land in the straits of John de Fuca is described, but it differs little from the rest on the coast, whose characteristics are lofty inaccessible hills covered with wood, a bold shore with many marks of devastation from the southerly winds. From thence they proceeded to the south, so far as Cape Lookout, and to about the forty-fifth degree of latitude. The chart of Maurelle they had reason to believe was imaginary, or purposely misrepresenting the real coast. No such river as St. Roc, it is asserted, exists in the spot where it is laid down by the Spanish navigator.

On their return, they reënter Berkeley's Sound, lat. 49°, and in their way see some of the natives of the coast by whom they are supplied with provisions. From Berkeley's Sound, they send the long boat to explore the celebrated straits of Fuca, but after a very short progress, it was attacked with great fury and resolution by the natives, so that it soon returned, with very little intelligence, but of the dangers. They had sailed near thirty leagues up the strait, where it was fifteen leagues broad, and they had a clear horizon to the east of fifteen leagues more. It is probably a passage round the Archipelago, and there is not the least reason to suppose that it can lead into the Atlantic:

The return to Nootka, the launching the North West America, the mutiny and punishment of the seamen, or the wars of Maquilla and Callicum chiefs of Nootka, can only be important from the appearance of refined sensibility displayed in the narrative. Indeed the historian will never look to scenes of exaggerated importance and descriptions, whose warm colouring is inconsistent with the state of nature and society on these coasts, for real information. We must collect it casually from facts, and from those isolated sketches of truth and nature which we have said sometimes occur. Of this kind is the following paragraph, where Tianna, the Sandwich island chief, is compared with the inhabitants of Nootka,

‘ Indeed,

‘ Indeed, there was no comparison to be made between the inhabitants and customs of the Sandwich Islands and those among whom we now resided, or of any part of the continent of America.— The former are their superiors in every thing that regards what we should call the comforts of life, and their approach to civilization. They attend to a circumstance which particularly distinguishes polished from savage life, and that is cleanliness:—they are not only clean to an extreme in their food, but also in their persons and houses the same happy disposition prevails;—while the North Western Americans, are nasty to a degree that rivals the most filthy brutes, and, of course, prohibits any description from us. Indeed, the very disgusting nature of their food is not diminished by the manner in which it is eaten, or rather devoured.—Besides, their being cannibals, if no other circumstance of inferiority could be produced, throws them to a vast distance from the rank which is held in the scale of human being by the countrymen of Tianna: nor should we pass over in this place the frequent and solemn declarations of this chief, that the natives of the Sandwich Islands possess the most abhorrent sentiments of cannibal nature; and though they may immolate human beings on the altars of their deity, they have not the least idea of making such a sacrifice to their own appetites.’

Our navigators return to Port Cox, and renew their connection with Wicananish; but this event is productive of no peculiar information, except that from the variety of winter provisions laid up, famine would not probably be one of the inconveniencies.

Mr. Meares next gives some account of the country, and of the manners of the inhabitants, from which we shall collect a few facts, which we think of importance, and which may probably be best depended on, as least influenced by the obvious bias so often perceptibly guiding our author’s pen.

‘ The American continent, in almost every part, presents nothing to the eye but immense ranges of mountains or impenetrable forests.— From Cape Saint James to Queenhithe, which we have considered as the district of Nootka, and inhabited by the same nations, this scene invariably presents itself, and admits of very little if any variety. In some places the country appears to be level on the coast, but still the eye soon finds itself checked by steep hills and mountains, covered, as well as every part of the low-land, with thick woods down to the margin of the sea. The summits of the higher mountains, indeed, were composed of sharp prominent ridges of rocks, which are clad in snow instead of verdure;—and now and then we saw a spot clear of wood, but it was very rare, and of small extent.

‘ The climate of this country, that is from Cape Saint James to the southward, is much milder than the eastern coast on the opposite side of America, in the same parallel of latitude.

‘ The winter generally sets in with rain and hard gales from the south east, in the month of November ; but it very seldom happens that there is any frost till January, when it is so slight as very rarely to prevent the inhabitants from navigating the sound in their canoes: The small coves and rivulets are generally frozen ; but I could not discover that any one remembered to have seen the sound covered with ice.

‘ The winter extends only from November to March, when the ground is covered with snow, which disappears from off the lower lands in April, and vegetation is then found to have made a considerable advance. April and May are the spring months, and in June the wild fruits are already ripened. To the northward of King George’s Sound the cold encreases, and the winters are longer ; as to the southward, it of course diminishes ; and we should suppose that to the southward of 45° there must be one of the most pleasant climates in the world.

‘ The mercury in the thermometer often stood in the middle of summer at 70° , particularly in the coves and harbours that were sheltered from the northern winds ; but we very seldom had it lower than 40 in the evenings. Fires, however, were very acceptable both in May and September ; but we attributed this circumstance in a great measure to the south east winds, which were ever attended with rain and raw cold. The north westerly winds, on the contrary, blow clear, but are rather cool. The winds which prevail during the summer months, are the westerly ones, which extend their influence over the Northern Pacific Ocean, to the northward of 30° north, as the easterly winds blow invariably to the equator from this latitude.

‘ Storms from the southward are very frequent in the winter months, but there is no reason to suppose that they operate with such a degree of violence as to prevent ships from navigating the American coast, in any season of the year.’

Nootka is certainly not destitute of useful vegetable productions, nor of useful animals ; but the most important are the marine and amphibious animals. Various berries and wild leeks are not only an agreeable but a salutary food ; and of these there seems to be a sufficient quantity. The deer are small ; but that Nootka produces the moose with branching horns, an animal found only in the most inaccessible woods of continents, is not very probable. Our author’s language is equivocal, and whether he saw the deer, or the remains with the horns, is doubtful. The marine and amphibious animals are numerous, and the manner of killing the whale, if Mr.

Meares

Meares was not misinformed, is singularly ingenious. The chief strikes it first with his spear, dignified with the name of an harpoon, to which a bladder is affixed. The animal dives as usual, and again rises, when the attendant canoes who follow his apparent course, attack him in the same manner, till from the buoyant power of numerous bladders, he can no longer sink.

The sea-otter, the object of our adventurers' labours, is a very singular animal. Its down is thick and of a silky fineness. In the youth of the animal it is fine and brown; in the maturer age, approaching to black; and when the animal is in perfection, of a jetty black. In old age it becomes brown and dingy. The fur of the male is the most beautiful, and those which are found in China or Japan seas are preferred by the Chinese, as having more beautiful and softer skins. The sea-otter cannot remain under water more than two minutes, and its weapons of defence are strong claws on its fore-paws, and the most formidable rows of teeth, inferior only to those of the shark. The young ones cannot swim till they are two months old, and they sleep in the water on the breast of the dam, who lies on her back. They are sometimes taken in this state and struck with an harpoon, by means of which they are dragged into the canoe, when they fight with great spirit and obstinacy. But the more common method of catching this animal is by pursuit; and as the otter must often rise to breathe, it is as often wounded by different canoes which follow its track.

The seal is a timid animal, but they are said to kill it by hiding their bodies behind a rock, or by some branches, having a mask on their face, resembling that of the seal, who approaches the hunter thus disguised without fear.

The other animals are neither peculiar nor important; nor of the vegetables or reptiles does our author give any useful or interesting account. Copper they have in lumps in a malleable state, and the shining sand, of which sir Francis Drake speaks, seems to be a kind of pyrites. The Spaniards expected to find gold.

The Nootkans, we have said, are not tall, but they are robust and well proportioned. They seem to be a mixture of a northern race, joined with the robusiter inhabitant of a more southern climate, perhaps of an Esquimaux joined to the Asiatics of the south. Their children's heads are swathed, and made to resemble in form the conical heads of the Tartars; but no conclusion respecting their origin can be drawn from this fact, since a similar practice prevails among many savage tribes. Like the other Americans they pluck out their beards by the roots; and when cleaned from their paint, they are said to be fair.

Neither

Neither in colour nor features do they resemble the red tribes of the continent. In person, though robust, they are crooked and ill-shaped; and in manners seemingly subtle, savage, and treacherous. The women are represented as handsome, reserved, and modest. The dress is very simple, and that of the women seems to be remarkably decent. Maquilla, the chief, used, it is said, to kill a slave once a month, as an extraordinary luxury; and our author tells us, that he owned and boasted of this horrid practice. The progress of Christianity may check this brutal custom; but Mr. Meares' threats will be remembered no longer than while he is in their sight.

Their usual food is the flesh of the whale, the oil of the whale or seal, that numerous and prolific race the herring, salmon, sardines, and the various produce of the sea; to which they occasionally add the small deer of this district, or any animal that they can meet with. Their customs are those of all savage races, and their lives an alternate change of gluttony and want, cruel wars or inactive peace. To the most filthy dirty manners their attachment is unremitted. The power of the chiefs seems to be considerable, and in some of the neighbouring tribes, the women appear to have absolute authority, which they were seen to exercise with the most fierce and savage cruelty. At Nootka the power of the women is inconsiderable; and they are even sometimes the price of peace. Wives are interchanged occasionally for political, and sometimes, we may suppose, for different purposes. The only trait of their religion we find in the following passage; but the fact, if admitted, will bear a very different interpretation.

‘ The young Nootkan related his story in the following manner :—he first placed a certain number of sticks on the ground, at small distances from each other, to which he gave separate names. Thus he called the first his father and the next his grandfather: he then took what remained, and threw them all into confusion together; as much as to say that they were the general heap of his ancestors whom he could not individually reckon. He then, pointing to this bundle, said that when they lived, an old man entered the Sound in a copper canoe, with copper paddles, and every thing else in his possession of the same metal:—That he paddled along the shore, on which all the people were assembled, to contemplate so strange a sight; and that, having thrown one of his copper paddles on shore, he himself landed. The extraordinary stranger then told the natives, that he came from the sky,—to which the boy pointed with his hand,—that their country would one day be destroyed, when they would all be killed, and rise again to live in the place from whence he came. Our young interpreter explained this circumstance of his narrative by lying down as if he

were

were dead; and then, rising up suddenly, he imitated the action of soaring through the air.

He continued to inform us that the people killed the old man, and took his canoe; and that from this event they derived their fondness for copper. He also gave us to understand that the images in their houses were intended to represent the form, and perpetuate the mission of the old man who came from the sky.

This stranger, if attended to, might have been another Mango Capac, and this part of the coast in a more civilized state.

Mr. Meares in the *Felice* returned to the Sandwich islands for provisions. He seems to have been received by these islanders with much attention and regard. In salting down the pork, he advises, in the larger joints, to separate the bone almost entirely, so as to permit the salt to penetrate well to those parts of the flesh which remain attached to the bone. Salt alone, placed in layers, is better, he observes, than pickle, and the moon seems also, he thinks, 'to possess a putrefying influence.' With the provisions collected in this voyage our author reaches China in safety. China to these voyagers is almost their home; and in this extended scale of commerce, it must afford the philosopher a subject of curious reflection to observe, that the reputed limit of the known world is now little more than a port of refreshment for the adventurer who pursues new speculations in an ocean formerly little known, and on coasts which the voyages within the course of a very few years only pointed out with tolerable accuracy.

The last part of this volume contains the voyage of the *Iphigenia*, captain Douglas, from Samboignan to the North West Coast of America, and from thence to the Sandwich Islands. This course affords few subjects of curious or useful remark. We shall step hastily over it, noticing only a few facts which may appear entertaining.

Captain Douglas was for a time detained by the extortions of the governor of Samboignan, which may be as much attributed to political motives as to avarice; for even at that time it must appear of importance to every intelligent Spaniard, to deprive the English of the advantages which might attend this trade, which, if pursued, would establish a power too near the mines of Potosi and Peru. From Samboignan they pass very near the Pelew Islands, and are followed with eagerness by canoes, perhaps by Abba Thule, the father of Le Boo, whose picture is an interesting one when coloured by Mr. Keate. At all events, independent of any colouring, the facts are very affecting. Captain Douglas hastened on. He knew nothing of Le Boo, and thought the canoes were for the purpose of trade. The *Iphigenia* pursued a north easterly course to Cook's River,
and

and came down the coast to Nootka, meeting in his way with the fact we formerly mentioned, in which the female despotism appeared so severe and cruel.

From Nootka captain Douglas departs with the North West America to the Sandwich Islands, and carries back Tianna. Amidst the most unreserved joy and apparent gratitude for the restoration of their friend, their relation, and their countryman, various attempts were made to seize their anchors, and one treacherous plan was laid to obtain possession of the sloop, and to murder the crew. When the cable parted, in consequence of their anchoring in foul ground, divers were brought, who, after some superstitious ceremonies, dived in pursuit of it. One was under water seven minutes and a half; but he was brought up by the others in a senseless state, with streams of blood issuing from his mouth and nostrils. As the *Iphigenia* only has anchored in Karakakoa Bay, since the death of captain Cook, we shall add our author's account of the subsequent political events of the island: they are in many respects curious.

‘ Many of the chiefs whom Captain King thought proper to particularize, are no more; and among them the friendly Kairee-keea and the treacherous Koah:—but Eappo, the faithful Eappo, who may be remembered as having brought the bones of the illustrious navigator to Captain Clerke, and who had married Tianna's sister, was now on board the *Iphigenia*, where he had lived ever since her arrival off the island. As to the revolution in the government, the most accurate account, in the opinion of captain Douglas, was as follows:—

‘ About three years after the death of Captain Cook, Maiha Maiha,—for that was the name which Tome-homy-haw then bore, had occasion to send a message to the King Terreeoboo, who, for some reason which did not appear, thought proper to put the messenger to death.—But Maiha Maiha being a very powerful chief, and possessing a very bold and active disposition, contrived to unite the greater part of those of his own rank to join with him in forwarding his revenge. He, therefore, went immediately to the king, who became so irritated by his provoking accusations, as to resent the insult by a blow. On this act, which we must suppose to have been considered as in the highest degree criminal in the king himself, the chiefs of the island sat in judgment during three days, when it was determined by their councils, that Terreeoboo should suffer death. A cup of poison, therefore, was instantly prepared, and being given to Maiha Maiha, was presented by him to the king, who refused it twice; when being informed that another and more dishonourable mode of punishment was at hand, and observing that an executioner stood by his side, in a
state

state of preparation to knock out his brains, the wretched sovereign, in an agony of despair, drank off the deadly draught, and in a few moments fell from his seat and expired.

‘The same power which doomed Terreeoboo to death, deprived his son of the royal succession, and Maiha Maiha was proclaimed king, by the name of Tome-homy-haw.—Such was the most probable history of this revolution;—though the king himself took no common pains to persuade captain Douglas that Terreeoboo was poisoned for having encouraged the natives to the murder of captain Cook.’

In the return to America we find one fact of some curiosity, which we shall select. In lat. from $36^{\circ} 10'$ to $36^{\circ} 19'$ north, and in longitude $208^{\circ} 15'$ to $210^{\circ} 13'$, in the month of April 1789, it was found impossible to steer the ship for two or three days together, as the compasses flew about each way four or five points in a moment. Capt. Douglas observed the same appearances in the same latitude, the year before. At Nootka, the seizure of the ships by the Spaniards occurred; and, after the Iphigenia was delivered up, captain Douglas returned to China. In his way he stopped at the Sandwich Islands for provisions, and very narrowly escaped being cut off, with his whole crew, by the treachery of these islanders, who in every instance were ready to take advantage of inadvertence or security, and who were only to be checked by terror.

The Journals and an Appendix conclude the volume. The latter contains Mr. Mearns' Memorial, and the different instructions to officers, who were sent in the various commercial, or other attempts, and which afford nothing which deserves our attention in this place.

The political circumstances of the moment has rendered this publication of some importance, and we have attended to it with care. We cannot, however, speak of it in any very warm terms of approbation. In the scientific part, Mr. Mearns appears too anxious to find a communication between the Northern Pacific and the Atlantic, through Hudson's or Baffin's Bay. This anxiety, with the evident alterations of position of places in his map, noticed by captain Dixon, makes us receive every fact of this kind with caution and reserve; nor can we compliment him with having added materially to our geographical knowledge. The convenient harbours which he found, and which he has carefully described, are useful rather in a nautical than a geographical view; and we must wait till we receive more perfect accounts of the track of the Washington, before we can consider these hints as improvements. The facts which relate to the people of Nootka and the neighbouring district, are to be received with equal caution. Our
author

author evidently wishes to place them in a respectable and advantageous point of view, which, from incidental circumstances, even in the present volume, we suspect they do not deserve. Of the language we have already spoken, and we have only to regret the prevalence of that false taste which makes these affected refinements so popular: of the maps too we have said enough. The accuracy of the charts of particular ports is, however, unimpeached.

Of the adventitious ornaments we can say also little in praise. The plates are in the black mezzotinto style, well calculated to express the effects of light and shade, but without any other particular merit. One of our corps supposed, or affected to suppose, that they were the productions of the Nootkan artists, and thought them, on that account, entitled to considerable attention.

A Narrative of the Building, and a Description of the Construction of the Eddystone Lighthouse with Stone: to which is subjoined an Appendix, giving some Account of the Lighthouse on the Spurn Point, built upon a Sand. By John Smeaton, Civil Engineer, F. R. S. Folio. 3l. 3s. boards. Nicol. 1791.

ABOUT fourteen miles S. S. W. from Plymouth, are the Eddystone rocks, somewhat within a line drawn from the Start to the Lizard Points; and, though they are in the direction of all vessels, coasting up and down the Channel, yet there was not any light-house to mark their place, until that erected by Winstanley, in 1696. From the draughts of this building it seems probable that it was the intention of the architect to have it destroyed as soon as possible; but it is certain that he had the highest opinion of its strength, for he often expressed a wish to brave a tempest in this dangerous situation. His desire was completely gratified, for he was there in the great storm of 1703, which swept away the building from its foundation.

Three years elapsed before an act passed to enable the master, &c. of Trinity House to erect another light-house on these dangerous rocks. Mr. Rudyerd, a mercer on Ludgate-hill, a man undistinguished by any mechanical performance before or since, was chosen as a proper person for this important work; and our author says, that he directed the performance of it in a masterly manner, so as perfectly to answer the end for which it was intended. He saw the errors of the former building and avoided them; but, by using timber for his principal material, this light-house was liable to be destroyed by another element: after standing forty-six years it was burnt down. Our readers may probably have heard of

the terrible accident which happened to one of the keepers, an account of which was inserted in the *Philosophical Transactions*. While he was looking up at the conflagration, a considerable quantity of melted lead passed through his mouth into his stomach, of which he died seven days after.

Mr. Smeaton being applied to for the next light-house, he executed the business like a man of genius and science. In what manner he proceeded, till the whole was completed, is the principal subject of his book; a subject in which we found ourselves much interested, from the importance of the work, and the very great abilities of the architect. We embarked with him in all his voyages to the Eddystone, which are more important and arduous than at first may be thought; we attended him at laying every foundation stone, and had by degrees contracted so great a respect for this excellent artist that when we saw him mounted on the four-plank scaffold, for fixing the ball, we trembled lest a slight gust might have sent Mr. Smeaton to accompany Mr. Winstanley.

Necessary plates illustrate this work, some of which are well executed; others but indifferently, particularly the vignette in the title: indeed the author seems conscious that it poorly expresses the stupendous subject of the sea breaking 100 feet above the top of the light-house.

The account of the light-house on the Spurn, though equally ingenious, yet as it wants the danger, so it wants the interest of the other.

Some entertaining anecdotes enliven the work, to which we will add one not to be found in it. When the author was on one of his journeys, he said, 'The first light-house was blown away; the second was burnt down; what will be the fate of the third I cannot foresee; but I may venture to pronounce that it will not be demolished by fire, wind, or water.' And the prediction is so far fulfilled. As it contains nothing combustible, it cannot be burnt, and it has hitherto (from 1759), withstood all the fury of the winds and waves, with which it is constantly assailed.

The perusal of this book will afford the reader entertainment; and we recommend the study of it to all persons who may be employed in works of a similar nature.

Rights of Man: being an Answer to Mr. Burke's Attack on the French Revolution. By T. Paine. Secretary for Foreign Affairs to Congress in the American War, and Author of the Work intitled Common Sense. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1791.

AND what is a plot good for, says Mr. Bayes, but to introduce 'fine things?' In the same way, one who would estimate any literary production from its eventual effects, March, 1791. A 2 might

might ask, what is the use of Mr. Burke's work but to draw from his opponents sarcasms against kings and governments? It is, indeed, a fruitful source to Mr. Paine; and we wish we could congratulate him on his success: but, with all our care, we have scarcely found, in the present Answer, one atom of that useful quality, Common Sense, which, if our author ever possessed, he seems to have exhausted it in the production of his favourite first-born. For instance, he is very angry that, at the revolution, the parliament should pretend to bind its successors; yet the national assembly, that miracle of wisdom and uprightness, has forbidden future assemblies from meddling with their '*organizations*.' He compares, in barbarity, the execution of Damiens with the hanging, drawing, and quartering in this country, forgetting only that the hanging, *in England alone*, precedes the other operations.—Mr. Burke observes, that the people of England would resist a *practical* assertion; but Mr. Paine, to support his own argument, converts the object that author's remark into an abstract proposition, (p. 7.)

In politics, Drawcansir himself is a poltroon to our author. 'Constitution is a thing (p. 53.) antecedent to government.' This is a bold step; for it says, very nearly, that the exception precedes the rule, the limitation the object, and the 'creature' its cause. If 'government' means any thing, it is the gradual permanent establishment of accidental, personal, or political superiority. In every government, the origin of which we have been able to trace, this source is constantly observable; and we may reasonably conclude that the remark would be confirmed by the history of others, were their origin not involved in obscurity.

We shall take our next remark from our author's system of political œconomy. To examine the quantity of silver and gold circulating in the different kingdoms of France and England, Mr. Paine estimates (145, &c.) the quantities imported at Lisbon and Cadiz, and then traces the quantity that finds its way into England. But, according to his idea, the quantity of the precious metals imported must all become money, and where then, he asks, is that money? It goes to Russia and Sweden for naval stores, and to France, through the hands of the smuggler. We will not contend about trifles; but the money that goes to Russia purchases, besides naval stores, iron: iron, in the hands of English workmen, may become as valuable as silver; and the silver of France purchases, at an hundred thousand per cent profit, the steel works of Birmingham. The smuggler undoubtedly carries away specie, and so does the China trade from France and Flanders, as well as from England. If France too did not con-

vert her silver into something besides coin, whence would the assembly have derived the glorious contribution of silver buckles, for the use of the state? a contribution so fashionable, that a provincial town is said to have ordered buckles to be manufactured for the purpose, forgetting that the disinterested patriots, who receive their daily stipend for attending the national business, would have been better pleased with the current coin of the kingdom, even though it bore the impression of the sovereign.

Mr. Paine is at some trouble to prove, that the advantages of the French revolution are not so considerable to England as is supposed, since the silver is too bulky to be drawn even by horses. It may, however, be observed, that the English have still a little Common Sense, and are contented with the advantages derived from the difference of exchange, which they know will in the end have the same effect: they know that every guinea spent in England by the refugees must be ultimately derived from France; and, if they wanted farther evidence, they would ask Mr. Paine, how French bills are discounted in the neighbourhood of the Palais Royale? Is *that mode* a mark of national prosperity? Certainement Monsieur ç'a n'ira point*.

We have brought together some of our author's eccentricities, in which we have necessarily mixed a little ridicule with our argument, since such observations can scarcely be treated with gravity. The reader will meet with many others of equal merit. — The answer to Mr. Burke precedes; but a great part of the work is employed in a narrative of the French revolution, derived, it is said, from the information of M. de la Fayette, to whom Mr. Paine politely makes an apology for addressing him by his title. But we shall select a passage or two, not only from the Answer, but from the Narrative.

The first passage of importance is that already alluded to, in which the author is very angry that any body of men should pretend to bind their posterity. Undoubtedly they cannot; but the continuance of this regulation shows the wisdom of those who suggested the measure, and carried it into execution. A sacred reverence for the revolution would doubtless neither protect a tyrannical king, nor afford toleration to unconstitutional conduct; and it is not improper now to add, in opposition to Mr. Paine's sneers at the conclusion, respecting the choice of a German prince, that England has had no reason to regret the measure. The English constitution has been supported, notwithstanding some trifling shocks, with great

* Alluding to the French popular democratic song, whose burthen is ç'a ira.

firmness by the house of Brunswic, and even the continental wars been rendered conducive to the increase of the British marine, and consequently the British power. What is the rest of his argument on this subject but an amplification of the observation of a Dutch statesman, that the expences of a monarchy are sufficient for the whole maintenance of a frugal commonwealth? Our author's jargon, respecting constitution, we shall transcribe.

'A constitution is not a thing in name only, but in fact. It has not an ideal, but a real existence; and wherever it cannot be produced in a visible form, there is none. A constitution is a thing *antecedent* to a government, and a government is only the creature of a constitution. The constitution of a country is not the act of its government, but of the people constituting a government. It is the body of elements, to which you can refer, and quote article by article; and which contains the principles on which the government shall be established, the manner in which it shall be organized, the powers it shall have, the mode of elections, the duration of parliaments, or by what other name such bodies may be called; the powers which the executive part of the government shall have; and, in fine, every thing that relates to the complete organization of a civil government, and the principles on which it shall act, and by which it shall be bound. A constitution, therefore, is to a government, what the laws made afterwards by that government are to a court of judicature. The court of judicature does not make the laws, neither can it alter them; it only acts in conformity to the laws made; and the government is in like manner governed by the constitution.'

'Can then Mr. Burke produce the English constitution? If he cannot, we may fairly conclude, that though it has been so much talked about, no such thing as a constitution exists, or ever did exist, and consequently that the people have yet a constitution to form.

'Mr. Burke will not, I presume, deny the position I have already advanced; namely, that governments arise either *out* of the people, or *over* the people. The English government is one of those which arose out of a conquest, and not out of society, and consequently it arose over the people; and though it has been much modified from the opportunity of circumstances since the time of William the Conqueror, the country has never yet regenerated itself, and is therefore without a constitution.'

The account of the Revolution of France is not very different from those which we have had occasion to give, interspersed, occasionally, with some secret history, which may be true or false: we cannot decide. One specimen of this kind also we shall select.

On carrying this motion, the national representatives, as had been concerted, sent an invitation to the two chambers, to unite with them in a national character, and proceed to business. A majority of the clergy, chiefly of the parish priests, withdrew from the clerical chamber, and joined the nation; and forty five from the other chamber joined in like manner. There is a sort of secret history belonging to this last circumstance, which is necessary to its explanation: it was not judged prudent that all the patriotic members of the chamber, styling itself the Nobles, should quit it at once; and in consequence of this arrangement, they drew off by degrees, always leaving some, as well to reason the case, as to watch the suspected. In a little time, the numbers increased from forty-five to eighty, and soon after to a greater number; which, with a majority of the clergy, and the whole of the national representatives, put the mal-contents in a very diminutive condition.'

Our readers may now amuse themselves with the rest of this work, or they may consign it to oblivion. The adventurous author has thought proper to abuse the English nation in its metropolis. Had he tried a similar experiment with France in Paris, or with America in Philadelphia, he would not have escaped with contempt only; for no truth is better established than this—'Republics show no mercy.'

The evils arising from such inflammatory publications are great and extensive; for though the fallacy of the arguments cannot impose upon a well-informed mind, they produce unhappy effects upon the ignorant, by weakening their attachment to the constitution, and rendering them uneasy under the mildest administration. On the whole, notwithstanding the sage and patriotic resolution of the Society for Constitutional Information, we may observe, that the author of the pamphlet before us is more fit for 'treasons, stratagems, and spoils,' than for suggesting useful remarks with respect to the government of a free and enlightened people.

A Letter from Mrs. Gunning, addressed to his Grace the Duke of Argyll. Second Edition. 8vo. 3s. Ridgway. 1791.

THE Public are not entirely unacquainted with the event which has occasioned the pamphlet before us. Some light was expected to be thrown upon the subject by Mrs. Gunning's Letter to the Duke of Argyll; but though we have examined it with attention, it does not enable us to penetrate the veil which envelopes this dark transaction. Perhaps some affidavits, which we understand are soon to be published, may prove more conducive towards unravelling the

mystery. The affair has generally been considered in a very serious point of view; and indeed where the fame of a young lady of virtue and rank is concerned, it can scarcely be otherwise; yet there is some reason to imagine that it has originated in frolic, and that without the smallest collusion on the part of miss Gunning. We cannot avoid recollecting, on this occasion, what happened between the late duke of Marlborough and Mr. Barnard—the affair of Elizabeth Canning, of Simonds the Jew, and Fanny the Fantom.

Though curiosity cannot be much gratified by any information contained in this pamphlet, we shall present our readers with two extracts. In the first, the suspicions expressed by Mrs. Gunning are of a very extraordinary nature.

‘ From the beginning of the present month so many *events* have taken place, that I must apply to my *own* memorandums, which I *regularly* and *daily* made, to lay before your grace such facts as occurred to my *ever watchful* observation. My suspicions of general Gunning’s *intentions to impede* the happiness of his daughter, were from the date on which I shall take up the affair. No longer suspicious, *his conduct* had explained them into *certainities*, but to what *extent* he meant to carry his *devices*, I had not the most distant idea. How, could it possibly enter into the imagination of *one* parent, that *another* would have gone the *aesperate* lengths that *other* has *since* gone? A *surmise* of the kind would have been *criminal*, it would have been an offence *against* nature! and could not have proceeded from any heart but that *impenetrable one*, whose owner has persisted in his *cruel machinations* with effrontery, for which humanity *has no precedent*! I turn with horror from the subject!!!.

‘ MEMORANDUM I. *Feb. 2.* “ Between eleven and twelve this morning, general Gunning had sent off his groom with a letter, to the ——— of ———, which letter he has written in his dressing-room, but has not shewn the contents to any of his family.”

‘ On this *first* memorandum, my lord, I shall take the liberty to *observe*, that I have omitted, and from motives that none of the *parties concerned* will disapprove, to mention the name of the *respectable* personage to whom the letter was sent, or into *what* county, your grace being already acquainted with the *particulars* I have suppressed.

‘ My *next* observation on the *above* memorandum is, that the *groom* who was sent *with* the letter is not looked upon as a *family* servant; he *eats* and *sleeps* in the house, but *lives* by day with his horses at the livery-stable, *sometimes* attending *his master* in his rides, and sometimes *any lady who happens* to be under general Gunning’s *protection*. I have not seen *this* man more than *three times*

times since his master brought him back from Ireland, in May last, where he had attended him with other servants; and have never spoken to him but to ask him about his wife and children, who being left in a distant part of the country, compassion had instigated me to keep from starving. I have too much pride, to say any thing of my daughter's knowledge of this wretch.'

The next extract is from that part of the Letter in which Miss Gunning is introduced as vindicating herself from the suspicions entertained of her conduct.

' Accusations alledged against me.

' I. I am accused of having written letters in the name of the D— of M——, and of L— B——, and also of writing anonymous letters.

' II. I am accused of going to Mrs. Bowen's lodgings, on Sunday the 6th of February, about the forged letter produced by her.

' III. I am accused of having bribed papa's groom, not to go to Blenheim with a letter from papa to the D— of M——, and a narrative of my writing, which I had drawn out at the request of papa for the purpose (as he said) of being sent to the D— and D—— of M——; that I bribed the groom, not really to go to Blenheim, but to say he had been there and to deliver, as coming from the D— of M——, a letter that I had given him for that purpose.

' The following preamble was affixed by my daughter, and written by herself, immediately after the accusations and her answers to them, and before the awful oath was administered to her:

' My answers on oath.

' I. I never have written, or caused to be written, any letter, or note, in my whole life, in a disguised hand, by a fictitious name, or anonymous.

' II. I never was in Mrs. Bowen's lodgings in my life; I never met her by appointment, or by chance, at any third place; the only place in which I have ever seen her has been at my father's house, or in my father's carriage, and never without my mama or my aunt being present. I never wrote her a note or a letter in my life; I never spoke to her confidentially on any subject whatever.

' III. I never spoke to papa's groom, or caused him to be spoken to, prior to, or on the subject of his journey to Blenheim; I gave him no orders whatever, or any letter whatever, or any bribe whatever; I believed he had been at Blenheim, and that the letter he brought back was from the D— of M——; and I felt happy and grateful for the honour his Grace had done me,

‘As I may perhaps from my time of life be supposed not to understand the nature of the solemn oath I am about to take to attest my innocence of the above charges, I beg to assure the magistrate who shall administer the oath to me and the witnesses present, that I know, on the truth of what I assert depends my character in this world and my everlasting salvation in the world to come.

‘The oath being administered by William Hyde, esq. one of his majesty’s justices of the peace, and witnessed by two gentlemen of probity, was signed by herself, E. GUNNING.’

After the perusal of this Letter, which is written in an impassioned strain, full of maternal tenderness, and, we are sorry to say, interspersed with conjugal indignation, we cannot help being of opinion, that miss Gunning has been impeached with too great precipitancy and violence, and upon presumptions by no means sufficient to justify any unfavourable imputation. We hope, however, when the thread is discovered which will lead through the mazes of the labyrinth, the conduct of all the parties will appear in a light less disadvantageous than at present. We sincerely wish for the arrival of that happy period; and in the mean time, our warmest sympathy attends Mrs. Gunning and her daughter, who we are glad to find are taken under the protection of a duchess, so benevolently disposed by nature, and so well qualified by fortune, to alleviate and sooth their distress.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

DIVINITY, RELIGIOUS, &c.

A Sermon preached before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, in the Abbey Church of Westminster, on Monday, January 31, 1791, being the Anniversary of King Charles’s Martyrdom. By William, Lord Bishop of Chester. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons. 1791.

THIS admirable discourse is well adapted to the anniversary of the event on which it was preached, and to the present situation of political circumstances in a neighbouring kingdom. While Christianity has meliorated despotism, it has not abolished a due subordination; and the bishop, in opposition to the present fashionable system, endeavours to show, that natural rights must be subordinate to political situations, that government is closely connected with religion, and the outward forms with the real body of religion; while, at present in France, religion, government, and good order, have been equally sacrificed to the spirit of innovation and rash experiment.

Concio

Concio ad Clerum in Synodo Provinciali Cantuariensis Provinciæ, ad D. Pauli, Die 26 Novembris, 1790, habita A Johanne Randolph, S.T.P. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons. 1790.

We have read with great pleasure this very elegant and classical Discourse from 2 Timothy iv. 5. The directions of the apostle to Timothy, the preacher thinks still applicable and proper to be kept in view by Christian ministers. For this purpose he gives a short history of the progress of heresy to this time; and we shall transcribe Dr. Randolph's remarks on the fashions of the present day, after he has enlarged on the various improvements in different branches of science.

‘Tum vero ex tanto in rebus Physicis successu accrevit rabies nova inveniendi in aliis omnibus, in quibus regio incognita non æquè patet; adeo ut Veritatem præcurramus, ignari quantæ sit Prudentiæ parta conservare, et quod sanum est in antiquis constanter tueri. Etiam in Theologia nova aucupamur, et de novis inventis sæculi nostri gloriamur. Fateor nunquam satis explorari posse, quæ ad illustrandam et confirmandam Christianam Fidem faciant, sed Religionem specie novam post Revelationem tot annos datam quærere, summæ esse dementiæ mihi videtur. Cavendum est certe in rebus sacris, ne Doctrina dum cursu præcipiti fertur fluxa sit et instabilis. Eadem instabilitas, et nova captandi studium pessimo exemplo in mores etiam profluxit, unde sacrarum rerum reverentiæ et cura, nequid pejus dicam, a pristina severitate multum descivit. Tum vero Commercia vitæ in majus aucta, prout animum ad humana negotia promptiorem et habiliorem reddunt, et in iis gerendis magis apertum et liberalem efficiunt ita tamen eum occupant, ut Religioni et sacræ meditationi minorem locum relinquunt, et divinorum officiorum fastidium inducant.’

A View of the external Evidence of the Christian Religion. By the Rev. James L. Moore. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons. 1791.

This is an interesting and elegant little work. The external evidence arises from the life of our blessed Saviour, the concurrence of incidental information in profane historians, the miracles of Christ, and the progress of Christianity. In this sceptical age, it may be necessary to add, that our author is a warm defender of the divinity of Christ.

A Review of the Policy, Doctrines, and Morals of the Methodists. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1791.

Our author seems to dread the policy of the Methodists, as much as he undervalues their doctrine and morals. Their policy is undoubtedly considerable, and the sect greatly increasing: whether this will ultimately contribute to amend the morals, or increase

increase the happiness of mankind, must be left to future experience.

Antinomianism Unmasked and Refuted; and the Moral Law proved from the Scriptures of the Old and New Testament, to be still in full Force as the Rule of the Christian's Conduct. By Maria de Fleury. 8vo. 1s. Simmonds. 1791.

We have no great predilection for Antinomianism, and consequently can coincide with Maria de Fleury, in her eager attempt to unmask this whimsical visionary system. We think her, however, a little too violent; and, in her representations of the doctrine, she has in some instances pictured its most obnoxious extremes.

Emanuel Swedenborg's New Year's Gift to his Readers, for 1791. 8vo. 6d. Simmonds.

‘ Though dead he speaketh:’ he speaketh in his works, enforced by the pen of a commentator, whose indignation is excited, that the translator of Emanuel’s ‘ Arcana’ should have so far mistaken his meaning as to represent him of opinion that future punishments were eternal. There is an account also of some choice mysteries from manuscripts, if we were but wise enough to understand them. The veils, our readers may be sure, did not assume these figures for no purpose: every fold is replete with mystic meaning; but we have unfortunately none of the enlightened in our corps.

P O E T I C A L.

The Triumph of Divine Mercy; or, a Predictive Poem of the present Revival of pure Christianity in these Nations, by that popular Divine and Reformer, the Rev. John Wesley, and the late celebrated Mr. George Whitefield. 12mo. 6d. Printed for the Author. 1791.

Whether happy or not happy in the execution of his plan; all our author means is to raise a moral thought from St. Luke xiii. 6, 7, 8, 9, and apply it to his native country. Such is his own account of the plan: we can commend his piety, commiserate his sufferings, be ‘ candid’ and be *silent*.

An Heroic Epistle to the King. With a Postscript to the Hon. William Pitt, Esq. Dedicated to Peter Pindar, Esq. By his affectionate Cousin, Thomas Pindar. 4to. 1s. 6d. Ridgway. 1791.

———— Ceratis ope Dedalæa
Nititur pennis, vitreo daturus
Nomina ponto.

Oedipus,

D R A M A T I C.

Oedipus, King of Thebes, a Tragedy, from the Greek of Sophocles: translated into Prose, with Notes critical, and explanatory; by George Somers Clarke, B. D. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons. 1790.

Mr. Clarke professes his having undertaken this translation by a friend's advice, who imagined that such an attempt, if properly executed, 'would possess *obvious* advantages over the metrical translations, and prove of superior utility, as well to the classical student, as the English reader.' We are at a loss to conceive what these advantages can be, exclusive of the assistance which it may afford the young student by its fidelity to the original: in which respect the Latin translation, that in most editions accompanies it, is not unfrequently deficient. This gentleman, perhaps, is ignorant, as he says nothing concerning it, that a prose translation was given of Sophocles' Tragedies in 1729, by Mr. Adams, formerly of St. John's College in Cambridge. In point of elegance the two translations are nearly on an equality: to which neither of them has any great pretensions. But as to fidelity, Mr. Clarke's, so far as we have compared them, is infinitely superior to his predecessor's. — 'He has purposely, he says, neglected to notice the divisions into strophe and antistrophe, which constitute no material interruption of the sense, would probably perplex the English reader, and to every other would be superfluous in a prose translation.' We cannot but entertain a different opinion. The mere English reader, or any other, who does not refer to the original, will frequently lose the spirit, nay even the meaning of the chorus, when its constituent parts are thus jumbled together. The preservation of the strophe and antistrophe is sometimes as necessary towards the elucidation of its design, as the A and B, or the question and answer, in a dialogue.

The notes annexed do not appear to us as considerable in number or consequence. The author has formed a different opinion. He assures us that he has not encumbered his translation with those which are useless.

'He trusts, it will be allowed him by the classical reader, that he has not inserted any, even those which are of a more philological nature, which do not either tend to establish new, and better interpretations of the several passages than what were before received, or add force and precision to the old acceptations; and, that far the greater number of the notes are plain and short. Upon a similar plan, the SEVEN AGAINST THEBES of Æschylus, is ready for the press; and, as far as the endeavours of the translator have availed, the future reader of that translation, who would be gratified at seeing difficulties surmounted by the assistance

ance of conjectural and expository criticism, is at liberty to form some favourable expectation, in which he will not be entirely disappointed. Whatever may be the general opinion, either of the novelty on the one hand, or of the utility on the other, of such a kind of interpretation of the Greek tragedians; it is offered to the public, as a production of academic leisure.'

Whatever may be the *utility* of this undertaking, it certainly has not the slightest pretensions to *novelty*. *Æschylus*, however, one of whose tragedies is already, we are told, translated, will afford Mr. Clarke a more arduous task, and possibly contribute more to his honour. In his works he will find an ampler field for literary exertion. The steed acquires but little credit in passing safely through a road where the track is beaten and no difficulties occur to impede his progress.

Memoirs of his own Life. By Tate Wilkinson, Patentee of the Theatres Royal York and Hull. 4 Vols. 12mo. 12s. Robinsons. 1791.

This monarch of the boards condescends to be his own historian and biographer; in which capacity he exceeds every other monarch, except Colley Cibber, for even the great Frederic left the task of his biography to an inferior pen. The story is an eventful one, and comprehends the rise and fall of kingdoms, campaigns, battles and skirmishes without number. But, as Livy had his *Patavianism*, Johnson his triads and quaternions, and Gibbon sometimes too much pompous splendour, so our present king (we mean the king of York and Hull), is a little too digressive in his style, and less exact and careful in his chronology. But to drop the buskin, we must own that we have been greatly entertained by these Memoirs; they comprehend many minuter parts of the history of the stage from about the year 1750, and furnish an agreeable supplement to the 'Dramatic Miscellanies' of Davis. The letters of Mrs. Baker, at the end, are excellent: we regret that they are not more numerous.

Lindor and Clara; or, the British Officer: a Comedy, in Five Acts. By Mr. Fennell. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Williams. 1791.

We almost suspected from the first act that there was an error in the title, and that Lindor and Clara would be a most affecting tragedy: indeed in every part there is too great a tendency to the heroic and the pathetic. But, when we arrive at Gibraltar, for by anticipation the siege is carried on, as it probably will be in some future time, we find much humour extracted from bombs and balls; and a brace of weddings stamp the character of the piece. If it is ever acted, we would recommend it to be by desire, on the evening after a review.

The Woodman. A Comic Opera, as performed with Applause at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. The Music composed chiefly by W. Shield, the Poetry by Mr. B. Dudley. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Longman and Broderip. 1791.

Of the music we cannot say too much— of the poetry too little.

N O V E L S.

Maple Vale; or, the History of Miss Sidney. 3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Vernor. 1790.

This is a pleasing chit-chat novel, unreasonably extended. We have said that souls have no sexes, yet we think that there is sufficient *internal* evidence to conclude that the author is a female. Are we, in this, inconsistent? We trust not: novels of this kind are constructed mechanically; the mind has no share in the business.

Lindor and Adelaide, a Moral Tale, in which are exhibited the Effects of the late French Revolution on the Peasantry of France. By the Author of Observations on Dr. Price's Revolution Sermon. 12mo. 3s. Stockdale. 1791.

If the friends of civil liberty can declaim on the advantages of restoring the natural equality of mankind, and breaking the fetters of despotism, their opponents, or rather the friends of a proper subordination, and the necessary distinction of different ranks in society, can be equally eloquent on the want of that protection which alleviated the sufferings of the lower ranks, that kindness which cheered their toils, and that benevolence which poured oil and wine into their wounds. Each party is right, for the one views the lord, and ultimately the king, as tyrants and oppressors; the other as benevolent guardians and powerful protectors. The last is the view of our present author, and he draws a gloomy picture of the inconveniences which have resulted from the late revolution: when the seigneur resembled the marquis d'Antin, his loss must be a misfortune; and for the credit of human nature we hope that many did resemble him. In other respects, this tale is interesting and pleasing, interspersed with many judicious observations on that wild licentiousness which assumes the garb of liberty, and the irregular exertions of the spirit of innovation, under the guise of a reform.

Memoirs of Maria, a Persian Slave. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Robinsons. 1791.

There are many circumstances which lead us to think that these Memoirs are genuine, or at least have their foundation in truth. They are very interesting and entertaining. The little improbabilities which appear may arise from our ignorance of eastern customs, or be owing to the European additions, *retouchings* which
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may have been supposed necessary to adapt them for the 'English market.' The second volume we were particularly pleased with.

A Sicilian Romance. By the Authoress of the Castles of Athlin and Dumloyne. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Hookham. 1791.

This very interesting novel engages the attention, in defiance of numerous improbabilities and 'hair-breadth scapes' too often repeated. Perhaps, on a second reading, these might be still more disgusting; but it is an experiment that we can scarcely venture to try but with modern novels of the first class. We found the tale, we have said, very entertaining, and involved with art, developed with skill, and the event concealed with great dexterity. If our author again engages in this task, we would advise her not to introduce so many caverns with such peculiar concealments, or so many spring-locks which open only on one side.

Somerville Bower; or, the Adventures of Sephronia. In a Series of Letters. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Bladon. 1791.

There is no little art conspicuous in the conduct of this Novel, not in the unexpected changes of events, contrast of characters, or a skilful arrangement of the story, but in spinning out such a meagre tale to the extent of two volumes. At last, the haughty beauty is brought to reason by the small pox, and obliged almost against her will to accept of an amiable baronet and twenty thousand a year. Not to be outdone in generosity, however, the author gives his heroine at last *thirty thousand pounds*—in the lottery.

Woodley Park; or, the Victims of Revenge. By a Lady. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Wilkies. 1791.

In the whole course of our literary experience we have seen nothing more childish, trifling, and improbable, than the work before us.

Foscari, a Venetian Tale, founded on Fact. 12mo. 3s. Lane. 1791.

This tale is, we suspect, older than the present season, though modernised to fill up the vacuum which the secession of our best novel-writers has occasioned. It is interesting and pathetic; the costume is also well preserved; but we cannot cordially praise a tale where vice triumphs, and virtue suffers for faults not her own.

The Baron of Manslow, a Novel from the German. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Lane. 1791.

If the German novellists possess some knowledge of the human heart, they do not display much skill in interesting it. The pathetic scenes are ill arranged, and their force is weakened by improper management. The Novel before us, in better hands, would have been highly pleasing and forcibly interesting. At present,

present, though it deserves great commendation, its merit is obscured by unskilful arrangement. The descriptions are often highly finished ; but the sensibility is too refined, and the notions of honour are almost ridiculously romantic.

C O N T R O V E R S I A L.

The Barber ; or, Timothy Priestley shaved, as reflected from his own Looking-Glass. The Operator, William Huntington, S. S. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Terry. 1791.

If the saints will quarrel it is not for us to interpose. Mr. T. Priestley is a minister, and the sentiments contained in a late publication of his ‘ Christian’s Looking-Glass, or the Timorous Soul’s Guide,’ has roused the indignation of Mr. Huntington, S. S.

An Appeal to the Public, occasioned by a Letter from the Rev. J. Pope, a Dissenting Minister, at Stand, near Manchester. Containing a Charge of the Use of the unworthy Methods of Misrepresentation and false Citation, in some Observations on the Miraculous Conception. By N. Nisbett, M. A. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1791.

Mr. Pope wrote with some severity to Mr. Nisbett, concerning his quotation from the *interpolated* Epistle of Ignatius, while he sheltered himself by Dr. Lardner’s opinion of the *smaller* Epistles. Some other reprehensions also occur ; and if we admit for a moment Mr. Nisbett to have been too hasty, we may consider Mr. Pope, who seems to possess no inconsiderable learning and knowledge of the subject, to have been too severe. The Letters are now published, but between angry polemics no prudent Reviewer will choose to mediate. We have had some experience of their irritable nature, and shall consequently decline interfering any farther.

Observations on a Pamphlet, entitled A State of the Present Form of Government of the Province of Quebec ; circulated in London during the last Summer. With an Appendix, containing Information on the Subject. By a Citizen of Quebec. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale. 1790.

Introduction to the Observations made by the Judges of the Court of Common Pleas for the District of Quebec, from the oral and written Testimony adduced upon the Investigation into the past Administration of Justice. Ordered in consequence of an Address to the Legislative Council. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale. 1790.

As in the course of last year we declined giving any opinion on the ‘ State of the Government of the province of Quebec,’ it will be sufficient to announce the publication of these two replies. The second appears the most candid and dispassionate ; the first the most shrewd and pointed.

P O L I T I C A L.

Political Miscellanies. By the Author of the Rolliad and Probationary Odes. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ridgway. 1790.

Alas! such is the ill success of wit, in these degenerate times, that of the publication of 1787, under this title, 21 pages * only are new. The former are not even reprinted.

An Address to the Public, in which an Answer is given to the principal Objections urged in the House of Commons, by the Right Hon. Frederic Lord North, (now Earl of Guildford) and the Right Hon. William Pitt, against the Repeal of the Test Laws. By a Master of Arts of the University of Oxford. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1791.

This calm and acute Address is intended as a reply to the speeches of lord North and Mr. Pitt. Our author does not add any thing to the force of the former arguments, though he occasionally weakens those employed by the former and present minister. Lord North, he thinks, has misrepresented the language and view of king William, at least Tindal has given a very different account of both; but every party will not consider this as a satisfactory reply.

Observations on the Corn Bill, now depending in Parliament. By John Lord Sheffield. The Second Edition. 8vo. 2s. Debrett. 1791.

In this very able and judicious pamphlet, lord Sheffield reproaches the principle of the corn-bill now pending. As its object is to facilitate importation, and to keep back the price of corn 'at all events,' he thinks it will be ultimately injurious to agriculture. The subject is of great importance, and our author's observations are singularly able and ingenious. But independent of the delicacy of speaking on a question now under the consideration of the legislature, the particular examination would lead us into more extensive details than we can at present admit of. We have little doubt of meeting with some other publication in which we can with more propriety resume the enquiry.

Debates in the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland, on taking into Consideration an Overture from Jedburgh respecting the Test Act, May 27, 1790. 8vo. 1s. Pridden. 1791.

The general assembly, after many judicious and able speeches on different sides, concluded that the test-act was a grievance; and they seem to wish that 'they were fairly rid of it.' The arguments rested on its being a profanation of religion, and contradictory to the articles of union. The debate seems to have been conducted with equal moderation, ability, and judgment.

The Speech of Major Scott in the House of Commons, on the 14th of February, 1791. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. 1791.

In this Speech major Scott severely censures the conduct of the last house of Commons, with regard to the impeachment of Mr. Hastings; and he makes some very free observations on what has passed on the same subject in the present parliament. The editor has not been backward in contributing his *mite* on the occasion, by a preface which occupies as many pages as the Speech.

A Letter from Major Scott to Philip Francis, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. 1791.

It may well be imagined, from the names of the parties concerned, that this production relates to the affairs of the East-Indies, and ultimately to the conduct of Mr. Hastings. Major Scott writes, as usual, in the expostulatory strain, intermixing observations and arguments with a detail of transactions in the East. He is still a warm advocate for the late governor-general, whose tedious and expensive trial candour and humanity must induce us to wish were either abandoned, or brought to a speedy decision.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

Some Account of the Shrewsbury House of Industry, its Establishment and Regulations; with Hints to those who may have similar Institutions in View. By J. Wood. 8vo. 1s. Longman. 1791.

After maturely considering this 'Account,' we think it in many respects excellent, and deserving imitation in populous manufacturing towns, where the expence of the poor is a serious and increasing evil.

Thoughts on the present Performance of Psalmody in the Established Church of England, addressed to the Clergy. By Edward Miller, Mus. Doct. Cantab. 8vo. 1s. Miller. 1791.

Dr. Miller, with great propriety and good sense, recommends a reformation in the present performance of psalmody. It is undoubtedly a part of the service in which the whole congregation should join; and the simple melody, adapted to every ear and every voice, is only admissible. The Sunday-schools, he justly observes, if the children are properly instructed, may be very serviceable in effecting this reformation.

Viaggiana: or, detached Remarks on the Buildings, Pictures, Statues, Inscriptions, &c. of Ancient and Modern Rome. With Additional Observations. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Faulder. 1790.

We reviewed this work in our XLIII volume, p. 32: it now appears with a new title, and some additional remarks. We shall extract only, from the additions, what relates to the mutilated statues of the Romans, a passage selected in the article referred to.

March, 1791.

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'The appearance of these maimed figures brings to our mind the barbarous and cruel policy of Philocles, in Plutarch's life of Lyfander, who advised the Athenians to cut off the right thumb, δεξιὴν ἀνίχεσθαι, of every prisoner taken in war.'

The new observations are chiefly those which the author's reading, since the publication of the Viaggiana, has suggested.

An Enquiry concerning the Principles of Taste, and of the Origin of our Ideas of Beauty, &c. 8vo. 2s. Jeffry. 1789.

This is a strange, quaint, whimsical performance. If taste at all consist in a perception of what is natural and elegant, the author of the following paragraph, the first in this pamphlet, cannot be allowed to possess true taste.

'The mind of man, introspecting itself, seems as it were (in conjunction with the inscrutable principles of nature) placed in the central point of the creation: from whence impelled by her energetic powers, and illumined by her light, the intellectual faculties, like rays, shoot forth in direct tendency to their ultimate point of perfection: and as they advance, each individual mind imperceptibly imbibes the influence and light of each, and is by this imbibition alone enabled to approach it.'

Two letters of Dr. Johnson, the one to lord Hawkesbury, soliciting the life of Dr. Dodd, the other to the unfortunate convict, the day before his execution, are added. They are truly excellent. The distich intended for the collar of the goat, who had been twice round the world with Sir Joseph Banks, we do not remember to have seen before. We suspect it to be misprinted.

Perpetui, ambitâ bis terrâ, præmia lætis

Hæc habet: altrici capra secunda Jovi!

In the work before us it is Jovis; and though a second goat, dedicated to *Jupiter Altrix* is not a very classical idea, we can affix no meaning at all to it if we read *Jovis*, without too bold an ellipsis.

The Peerage Directory: containing the Mottos of the Peers of Great Britain and Ireland, alphabetically arranged, and their Supporters described. 12mo. 1s. Debrett. 1791.

An alphabetical list of mottos, with the supporters, and the titles of the noblemen who bear them; the index nearly equaling the substance of this little tract in bulk.

A true and genuine Discovery of Animal Electricity and Magnetism; calculated to detect and overthrow all counterfeited Descriptions of the same. Small 8vo. 2d. Parsons. 1790.

The 'science,' if we may be indulged in using the popular term, is explained more fully in this, than in Mr. Martin's pamphlet,

phlet, reviewed in our last volume; and the operation (an exception made against it by some of the adepts), more particularly explained. If it were worth while to expose this new folly, our author gives us ample room; for, though *weak*, he is *honest*.

The Mystery of Animal Magnetism revealed to the World, containing Philosophical Reflections on the Publication of a Pamphlet entitled, A True and Genuine Discovery of Animal Electricity and Magnetism. By Samuel Stearns, LL. D. 8vo. 2s. Parsons. 1791.

This pamphlet is founded on the 'true and genuine Discovery,' and by an art peculiarly our author's own, what the modest author sold for a shilling costs, in our author's enlarged form, double the sum. From the pamphlet before us, Dr. Stearns seems to have little right to laugh at the honest author of the 'Discovery,' and ridicules animal magnetism with little success. His list of titles* is somewhat suspicious, and prevents us from paying that attention to his description of the shaking Quakers, which it would otherwise deserve. If we were sure it was genuine, we should think it curious.

A Letter to the Reviewers of the Monthly Review; from Fulke Greville, Esq. Author of Reflection, a Poem, in Four Cantos. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Fiske. 1790.

This poem, of which Mr. Greville avows himself to be the author, was reviewed in our LXXth volume, p. 170. He expresses in the present publication great resentment against the Monthly Reviewers for not having entertained so good an opinion of it as himself, and we are severely censured on the same account.

An Abridgement of the Letter of the Right Hon. Edmund Burke to a Gentleman in Paris, on the Revolution in France. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. 1791.

This is the skeleton of a beautiful figure. It has the form, and something of the substance; but where is the spirit that animates, the grace that delights, the symmetry that charms, and the beauty that fascinates? All these are gone; it is the caput mortuum from the crucible; the last sad remains, which remind us only that 'such things were.'

De Morbis quibusdam Commentarii. Auctore Clifton Wintringham, Baronetto, M. D. Tom. II. 8vo. 3s. Cadell. 1791.

Having given so copious an account of the former volume in the LIVth volume of our Journal, p. 110. it is sufficient to ob-

* Samuel Stearns, LL. D. and Doctor of Physic; Astronomer to his Majesty's Provinces of Quebec and New Brunswick; also, to the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, and the State of Vermont, in America.

serve, that this continuation of sir Clifton Wintringham's aphorisms is by no means inferior to the former part. An useful index is subjoined.

A full and correct Report of the great Commercial Cause of Minet and Fecor, versus Gibson and Johnson; decided in the House of Lords on Monday the 14th of February, 1791. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Walter. 1791.

This Cause is one of the most important that ever occurred in a court of justice, and is said to have involved property to the amount of upwards of one million. A full report of it, therefore, must prove highly interesting to the commercial world. It is sufficient for us to observe, that the subject of litigation was a bill of exchange payable to John White, or his order; but there existed no specific person who was supposed to be meant by that name. The cause was tried in the court of king's-bench, where a decision was given in favour of the validity of the bill. An appeal, however, being made to the house of lords, the judges were summoned to give their opinion respecting the merits of the question, when nine of them were in favour of the judgment; but the lord chancellor, the chief baron, and Mr. Justice Heath, gave their opinion that it ought to be reversed. The decision of the lords, as might be expected, concurred with the majority of the judges. The case is distinctly related in the present Report, and an adequate account is given of the speeches delivered on both sides.

An Address to his Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury, as a Visitor of Colleges in the University of Oxford, and as Primate of all England. By a Country Clergyman. 4to. 2s. Robinsons. 1791.

This firm and manly Address relates to some abuses, which, if properly represented, and there are no reasons to suspect our author's accuracy, certainly deserve attention. The first part regards the prostitution of oaths, and some evasions which the acute perceptions of lawyers respecting fellowships and livings have discovered, which almost deserve to be ranked with the ingenious interpretations of lord Peter. The next object of the Country Clergyman is the reformation of the liturgy; and if we could think any reformation at this time expedient, it would be of the kind recommended by our author. He would reject the Athanasian Creed, which, he justly observes, is not connected with the doctrine of the Trinity, but only a scholastic explanation of it, and some of the more obscure or exceptionable passages in the Apostles' or Nicene Creeds. But his index expurgatorius is not sufficiently extensive in these last forms. The other parts of his work relate to residence, commendams, &c. The whole deserves great

great attention, for the manner is equally firm and respectful, the observations accurate and perspicuous.

The Laws of Masters and Servants considered; with Observations on a Bill intended to be offered to Parliament, to prevent the forging and counterfeiting of Certificates of Servants' Characters: To which is added, an Account of a Society formed for the Increase and Encouragement of good Servants. By J. Huntingford, Gent. 8vo. 2s. Brooke. 1790.

We hope the bill to prevent the forging of characters may succeed, if it does not add to the already too voluminous code of penal statutes. We wish equal success to the society for the increase and encouragement of good servants.

An Enquiry into the Truth of the Tradition concerning the Discovery of America, by Prince Madog ab Owen Gwynedd, about the Year 1176. By John Williams, LL. D. 8vo. 2s. White and Son. 1791.

Dr. Williams revises the old and almost exploded account of Madog's first discovering America, and contends that it was mentioned some years prior to Columbus's voyage. But in the account there are some difficulties, and the mentioning his having left Ireland to the north, leads us to think that 'westward' was an interpolation; for if he sailed from Wales westward, the situation of Ireland could be in no other direction, and it is at least a suspicious pleonasm. It is a little difficult also to explain how Madog, if he once chanced to reach America, could return home, when the knowledge of navigation was so imperfect: that he a second time arrived in America, would be more improbable; but of this there is not the slightest evidence.

The other part of the proof relates to the finding the Welsh language in America. But as this may have happened from many accidents between the first colonization of that continent and the time of the discovery, it does not greatly assist the argument. The Indians might have learnt it from their captives, or from their communication with some back-settlers of that nation. The tribes which are mentioned, as differing from the Americans in general, are not said to resemble the Welsh; but it is too common in this pamphlet to conclude, that if in any instance some foreign appearance or extraction is mentioned, they must be ancient British. This is particularly remarkable when the author speaks of Mexico. Another instance of inconclusive reasoning occurs in p. 51. where from Cæsar's observing that the Gallic *Druids*, for he is expressly speaking of them, used the Greek letters, our author argues that the ancient Britons employed the same characters.

In fact when, after the lapse of 300 years, the account of the
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American discovery of Madog precedes that of Columbus by about fourteen years; and this account, preserved so long by tradition, is only published after that event, its authenticity is suspicious. We may believe that Madog left Wales, and discovered another country; but where that country was must always remain uncertain. If he sailed westward from Wales, the currents would rather have carried him to Nova Scotia than to Virginia.

Remarks on the leading Proofs offered in favour of the Franklinian System of Electricity. By the Rev. John Lyon. 8vo. 2s. Doddsley. 1791.

Mr. Lyon in some former works has displayed his heresy, or his wishes for reformation. In the pamphlet now before us, he endeavours to show that the doctrines of positive and negative electricity have led the followers of this system into absurdities and inconsistencies. We think we could demonstrate that his experiments may be better explained on Dr. Franklin's hypothesis than on his own, which is at least as gratuitous and not so plausible.

Considerations on two Papers published at Antwerp, respecting a Loan for 3,600,000 Guilders; to be subscribed at the Houses of Mess. J. E. Werbrouck and C. J. M. de Wolf, of that City. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale. 1791.

Our author contends, that because the young gentlemen alluded to could not mortgage dutchies and bishoprics, and had no appanages but what depended on the will of their father, a transaction of this kind could not be true. We mean not to contend that it is so; but granting post obits, annuities, with insurance of lives, &c. are so common, that arguments of this kind are of little avail.

A Short Relation of the River Nile, of its Source and Current; of its overflowing the Campagna of Egypt, till it runs into the Mediterranean, and of other Curiosities. With a new Preface, written by an Eye-Witness, who lived many Years in the chief Kingdoms of the Abyssine Empire. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Lackington. 1791.

This is the narrative of Father Jeronymo. We had it before us in our review of Mr. Bruce's volumes, but it contains a very small portion of what is in that work. Some suspicious circumstances in his account also occur; and though we cannot deny that he has seen the fountains of the Nile, there is no reason to suppose Mr. Bruce's description is taken from this 'Short Relation.'

Observations on the Utility of Patents, and on the Sentiments of Lord Kenyon respecting that Subject. Including Free Remarks on Mr. Beetham's Patent Washing Mills. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway. 1791.

These Observations are so ingenious, and notwithstanding the bias

bias which we perceived in the author, and the prejudice occasioned in consequence of it, in our minds, so truly convincing, that we have little doubt of the argument *in favour* of patents resting securely on this ground. The whole seems designed to introduce the patent washing-mill, invented by Mr. Beetham; but we must remark, that equal pressure can only be of service when linen is equably dirty: some inconvenience arises from this cause, though, on the whole, we are convinced of the utility of this invention.

The History and Antiquities of Tewkesbury, from the earliest Periods to the present time. Collected from ancient Records and other authentic Materials. To which is added, some Account of the Medicinal Water near Tewkesbury. 8vo. 3s. Wilkie. 1790.

This little volume contains sufficient, perhaps more than sufficient, information for strangers. It is a concise local history of the town, and one of the most respectable directories that we have seen.

Reflections on the general Utility of Inland Navigation to the commercial and landed Interests of England; with Observations on the intended Canal from Birmingham to Worcester, and some Strictures upon the Opposition given to it by the Proprietors of the Staffordshire Canal. 8vo. 1s. Clarke.

This plan, if it be practicable, will we think be of general utility, and the new canal joining with that of Fazely, will unite the Trent and the Severn. We have said if practicable, because we understand there are some doubts on the subject. Our present author thinks it may be easily effected, but a little sanguine eagerness is allowable in a work like this before us.

A Short Review of the Trade of the East India Company, between the Years 1785 and 1790; taken from Papers laid before the House of Commons during the two last Sessions of Parliament. By a Proprietor. 4to. 2s. Debrett. 1791.

We have been long since aware, and it is probably no secret, that the balance of trade to India is against the Company, and that the deficiency is supplied by the territorial revenue. The loss in five years, from the accounts presented to parliament, in our author's statement, is 1,302,704l. In a national view, this undoubtedly is compensated by shipping duties and exports; and in other views, by some inexplicable means. But as this Review is preparatory to the renewal of the charter, it is consequently a piece of machinery too complicated for our comprehension, or too delicate for our explanation.

The Confessions of J. J. Rousseau, Citizen of Geneva. Part the First. To which are added, the Reveries of a Solitary Walker. Translated from the French. 2d Edit. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Robinsons. 1790.

We found the first translation so faulty, that it is with pleasure we see the work again undertaken by some more competent author. Our present translator has executed his task with accuracy and fidelity; but to translate Rousseau is a labour of difficulty, it is bending the bow of Ulysses, which few weaker hands can perform. The author of the present version errs in some minuter points, and sometimes loses the spirit of the original in his translation. Of the latter error, as it depends more on feeling than reason, we can give no instance. Of the former we may mention one example. In some of the first pages, sur la Treille is translated on the banks of the Treille. There is no such river in the universe: the Treille, as any map of Geneva will show, is a public garden in the vicinity of the city, the Vauxhall of the Genevois.

The Confessions of J. J. Rousseau, Citizen of Geneva. Part the Second. To which is added, a New Collection of Letters from the Author. Translated from the French. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Robinsons. 1790.

The translation of this part seems to have been executed by the author of the new and improved version we have just mentioned. As we have examined the work in the original, we need not again enlarge on it: and as we have attempted to translate some passages, we can with more confidence commend the present translator, who has succeeded well in a task that we found, from our trial, was not an easy one.

C O R R E S P O N D E N C E.

WE have received Meteor's letter, informing us that the opinion we mentioned as new, in our review of Dr. Cassan's Memoir, respecting the proportion of different degrees of heat, was taught twenty years since by Dr. Russell at Edinburgh. On recollection, we find it has been mentioned by some authors; but it escaped us at that time, and we suspect the distinction is not generally known. We are not aware that it has occurred in our Journal.

WHAT we observed, in Mr. Halloran's Poems, on the defect of his education, arose from a suggestion in his own work. We are happy to be informed by an Anonymous Correspondent, that this suggestion relates only to his early poems. He is at present, we find, a very good Latin scholar, and instructs boys with great success. If our remark has done him any injury, we shall be sincerely sorry for it.

WE are much obliged to C. S. for his intelligence: if he has no objection, we may publish the more material parts of his Letter in our next Number.

CRITICAL REVIEW.

For A P R I L, 1791.

The History of Herodotus, translated from the Greek. With Notes. By the Rev. William Beloe. 4 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Leigh and Sotheby. 1791.

WHILE we are unacquainted with the merits and characters of those historians who preceded Herodotus, it will be useless to raise his fame on their defects. Eighteen successive centuries have established his claim to the title, first given by Cicero, who styled him the Father of History, and we can still admire the elegant simplicity, the flowing ease of his language, the perspicuity of his arrangement, his candour, and the extent of his information. It is scarcely too strong an expression to add, that this admiration will continue while a pure uncorrupted taste shall remain, since it does not excite a temporary applause by an artificial splendor, but attracts the more judicious reader by perspicuous language, and a proper selection of words appropriated to the meaning which the historian purposed to convey.

The fidelity of Herodotus, and the truth of different parts of his narrative, have been often impeached; and Plutarch, in his well-known tract, has accused him of malicious misrepresentation. The source of this accusation has weakened its effect, and we scarcely needed the very able apology of Henry Stephens, when we recollect that the historian has not given an advantageous account of Plutarch's countrymen; but it has been of advantage by occasioning this able critic's defence, in which some of the other imputations are considered and refuted. If we remark that Herodotus travelled into Egypt and many different countries for the materials of his history; that he challenged the opposition of his antagonists, by reading it at the Olympic Games, the resort of Grecians from the different parts of this unconnected country; and that he has received the applauses of the most able critics during the extensive period we have mentioned, little doubt would, we think, remain of the authenticity of his materials, or the fidelity of his representations. But when, besides Plutarch, we find Ctesias, Strabo, Diodorus Siculus, Gellius, Ælius Harpocration, April, 1791. C c tion,

tion, Josephus, and even Cicero accusing him of fiction, we can scarcely resist a testimony so powerful. We confess that we were long of opinion, with the greater number of critics, that the History of Herodotus contained a large proportion of fable, and we read him with a mixture of suspicion and reserve. When brought again under our notice by the translation before us, and in examining it we were again obliged to look over the work, so many marks of care, attention, and candour were conspicuous, joined with much good sense, and a less proportion of credulity than could be expected in such an æra, that we again took refuge in an axiom we had before occasion to quote, and to own, that what might appear incredible, was by no means impossible. Subsequent enquiries have contributed to establish many of the suspected passages of our author's history, and in those which they have shown not to be true, the error is less considerable than was supposed. We could have wished that Mr. Beloe, in his additional notes, had been more attentive to these circumstances, and to the excellent observations in defence of Herodotus, by Monfaucon, in his little work on the truth of the History of Judith. In this volume there is an excellent examination of the comparative merits of Ctesias and Herodotus (p. 166, &c.), and a complete defence of the History of Herodotus, so far as relates to the Assyrians (233). Those who contend that the historian's account of Persia is less exact, as he seems to be unacquainted with the Persian language, on account of his ending all the Persian names in *s*, should have been first certain that there were any Persian manuscripts of that period. Mr. Richardson could find no account of Xerxes, in the Persian History, from this defect, and we are compelled to be contented with the Grecian account, which is suspicious from the magnitude of the preparations and the facility of the defeat.

Herodotus himself tells us, that he wrote about 400 years after the period of Homer, and this is one of the most striking arguments against the supposition, that he was the author of a Life of Homer, which bears his name, and fixes the æra of the poet 200 years later. Notwithstanding some little variations, the geography of each author cannot be styled contradictory; and the great attention to that of Homer, by the Grecians, is a strong confirmation of the accuracy of Herodotus, which has also received additional credit from the enquiries of Mr. Gibbon. If Mr. Beloe, however, adds, as a supplement to this translation, the Tract of Plutarch, and the Memoirs of the Abbé Geinot in answer to it, we hope that he will subjoin the excellent Apology of Henry Stephens.

Of the History of Herodotus it is scarcely our business to speak; but, having said a little in defence of his credibility,

we

we may mention a fact or two respecting the information which he affords. The early History of Greece, which the Grecians did not reject, tells us, that the little independent states were subject to incursions from their maritime neighbours, and that they took a proper opportunity of retaliating them. These incursions, of which the celebrated Argonautic expedition, on the shores of the Euxine, was one, did not, however, prevent a regular trade, carried on by the Phœnicians. This race, it is said, came from the borders of the Red Sea; but, as they were evidently neither Egyptians nor Arabians, we may suppose them to have been Lybians, used to the navigation of the Persian Gulph: compelled by some accident to migrate from thence, they carried to Asia their nautical talents, and their spirit of enterprize. To their Lybian origin there is only one objection, that when removed to the shores of the Mediteranean, they seem to be firmly united in the Asiatic confederacy. But that they came from the eastern side of the Persian Gulph is opposed by stronger arguments. These Phœnicians, of whom we have lately spoken so much, and whom the Irish claim as their ancestors, we can scarcely recognise as a distinct race, till we find them settled in Carthage; but, before this time, their fame and their enterprize had made them familiar to the Jews of Palestine, and to the distant Britons. They were, however, the same race in Africa as well as in Asia, but are not to be traced as having made any other permanent settlement, except perhaps in Spain, from whence the little Phœnician similarity, observed in Ireland, is most probably to be traced. The only other remark, which it is now necessary to make is, the rooted opposition between the inhabitants of the Grecian islands, and their neighbours of Asia; an opposition probably derived from the earliest ages, when they were inhabited by two distinct races, and perpetuated by the petty predatory warfare continually carried on. These two objects should be constantly kept in view in our examination of the origin of ancient nations: they are founded on the authority of the first historian, and supported by all the collateral evidence which a subject so obscure can attain.

In English, it is remarked, we have only the translation of Mr. Littlebury; except an old incorrect version of the two first books published in 1584. Mr. Littlebury's work is incorrect in some parts, but faithful in general, and sometimes nearly literal. He had probably heard that the language of Herodotus was an excellent specimen of the middle style, which he seems to have considered as almost synonymous to vernacular. But Cicero has justly styled the work before us, *fusum atque*

tractum, flowing and polished. It is in the Ionic dialect, which, without the affected refinement of the Attic, possesses all the elegance; and the language of Herodotus is so easy and perspicuous, that we think it would almost, by changing the words, become elegant English. Mr. Beloe is of a different opinion; and, without any trial, we dare not contend with the translator of the whole work. We have compared it in many different parts with the original, and find it very generally faithful, and without any adventitious or improper ornament, free, perspicuous, and elegant. It seems to be the corresponding style in English to that of Herodotus in Greek, occasionally, perhaps, with some less elegant inversions; but on this subject we shall extract the translator's own apology.

' Every one knows who has made the experiment, how difficult and almost impossible it is to assimilate to the English idiom, the simple and beautiful terseness of Greek composition. If any scholar therefore, who may chuse to compare my version with the original Greek, shall be inclined to censure me for being occasionally diffuse, I would wish him to remember this. — I would desire him also to consider, that it was my duty to make that perspicuous to the less learned reader, which might have been conveyed in fewer terms to the apprehension of the more learned or the more intelligent.'

The notes, in general, are designed for the less learned reader: they are taken from the French translator of Herodotus, Larcher, from various modern travellers; and are often the illustrations of Mr. Beloe. We shall extract, as our first specimen, the introduction.

' * To rescue from oblivion the memory of former incidents, and to render a just tribute of renown to the many great and wonderful actions, both of Greeks and Barbarians†, Herodotus‡ of Halicarnassus produces this Historical Essay.

Among

' * The simplicity with which Herodotus commences his History, and enters immediately on his subject, has been much and deservedly admired, and exhibits a striking contrast to the elaborate introductions of modern writers. It is not, however, peculiar to Herodotus; it was the beautiful distinction of almost all the more ancient authors.—T.'

' † *Barbarians.*—As this word so frequently occurs in the progress of our work, it may be necessary, once for all, to advertise the English reader, that the ancients used it in a much milder sense than we do. Much as has been said of the pride of the old Romans, the word in question may tend to prove, that they were in some instances less tenacious of their national dignity than the Greeks. The appellation of Barbarians was given by the Greeks to all the world but themselves; the Romans gave it to all the world but the Greeks.—T.'

' ‡ *Herodotus.*—It has been suggested as a doubt, by many of the learned, whether

‘ Among other things, it will be necessary to investigate the sources of the hostilities which subsisted between these people. The more learned of the Persians assert the Phœnicians to have been the original excitors of contention. This nation migrated from the borders of the Red Sea* to the place of their present settlement, and soon distinguished themselves by their long and enterprising voyages†. They exported to Argos, amongst other places, the produce of Ægypt and Assyria. Argos, at that period, was the most famous of all those states which are now comprehended under the general appellation of Greece‡. On their arrival here, the Phœnicians exposed their merchandize to sale; after remaining about six days, and when they had almost disposed of their different articles of commerce, the king's daughter, whom both nations agree in calling Io, came among a great number of other women to visit them at their station. Whilst these females, standing near the stern of the vessel, amused themselves with bargaining for such things as attracted their curiosity, the Phœni-

whether it ought not to be written Erodotus. For my own part, as I am able to remember no proper name terminating in dorus and dotus, as Diodorus, Diodotus, Heliiodorus, &c. which is not derived from the name of a divinity, I have no scruple in asserting my belief, that it must be Herodotus, compounded of dotus and the Greek name of Juno. — T.

‘ There is hardly an author, ancient or modern, who has been more warmly commended or more vehemently censured than this eminent Historian; but even the severe Dionysius declares, he is one of those enchanting writers whom you peruse to the last syllable with pleasure, and still wish for more. Plutarch himself, who has made the most violent attack on his veracity, allows him all the merit of beautiful composition. — Hayley.’

‘ * From the borders of the Red Sea.]—When Herodotus speaks, for the first time, of any people, he always goes to their original source. Some authors make the Phœnicians to have originated from the Persian Gulph; which opinion, though reported, is not believed by Strabo. Voltaire, taking it for granted that they migrated by sea, ridicules the idea of their coming from the Red Sea to Phœnicia; as well he might. Larcher proves, in the most satisfactory manner, that his misconception arose from his ignorance of Greek. It is evident from another passage in Herodotus (Book vii. chap. 89) that the Phœnicians, when they changed their place of residence, passed over by land. — Larcher (principally.)’

‘ † Long and enterprising voyages.]—The first among the Greeks who undertook long voyages were the Ionians. Upon this people, Mr. Wood, in his Essay on Homer, has the following remark: “ From the general character by which Homer constantly distinguishes the Phœnicians, as a commercial and seafaring people, it has been naturally supposed, that he was indebted to that nation for much of his information with regard to distant voyages. I think we cannot be at a loss to account for the poet's acquiring, at home, all the knowledge of this kind which we meet with in his works. We know the Ionians were amongst the earliest navigators, particularly the Phocæans and Milesians. The former are expressly called the discoverers of Adria, Iberia, Tuscany, and Tartessus.” — Wood on Homer.’

‘ ‡ Greece.]—The region known by the name of Helias or Greece, in the time of Herodotus was, previous to the Trojan war, and indeed long afterwards, only discriminated by the names of its different inhabitants. Homer speaks of the Danaans, Argives, Achæians &c. but never gives these people the general name of Greeks. — Larcher.’

cians, in conjunction, made an attempt to seize their persons. The greater part of them escaped, but Io remained a captive, with many others. They carried them on board, and directed their course for Ægypt.

‘ The relation of the Greeks differs essentially ; but this, according to the Persians, was the cause of Io’s arrival in Egypt, and the first act of violence which was committed. In process of time, certain Grecians, concerning whose country writers disagree, but who were really of Crete, are reported to have touched at Tyre, and to have carried away Europa, the daughter of the prince. Thus far the Greeks had only retaliated* ; but they were certainly guilty of the second provocation. They made a voyage in a vessel of war † to Æa, a city of Colchos, near the river Phasis ; and, after having accomplished the more immediate object of their expedition, they forcibly carried off the king’s daughter Medea. The king of Colchos dispatched a herald to demand satisfaction for the affront, and the restitution of the princess ; but the Greeks replied, that they should make no reparation in the present instance, as the violence formerly offered to Io ‡ remained still unexpiated.

‘ In the age which followed, Alexander, the son of Priam, encouraged by the memory of these events, determined on obtaining a wife from Greece, by means of similar violence ; fully persuaded that this, like former wrongs, would never be avenged.

‘ Upon the loss of Helen, the Greeks at first employed messengers to demand her person, as well as a compensation for the affront. All the satisfaction they received was reproach for the injury which had been offered to Medea ; and they were farther asked, how, under circumstances entirely alike, they could reasonably require, what they themselves had denied.’

* *Thus far the Greeks had only retaliated*]—The Editor is in possession of a translation of the two first books of Herodotus, published in London so early as the year 1584. It is in black letter, and may be considered as a great curiosity. The above passage is thus rendered : “ It chanced afterward, that certaine Greekes, whose names they knew not, taking shore and landing at Tyrys, in like manner made a rape of the kinges daughter, named Europa. These were the people of Crete, otherwise called the Cretenses. By which meanes yt was cardes and cardes between them, the one beyng full meete and quit with the other.”—*The first Booke of Clio, London, 1584.*

† *In a vessel of war.*]—Literally in a long vessel.—The long vessels were vessels of war, the round vessels, merchantmen and transports.—*T.*

‡ *Violence formerly offered to Io.*]—It may be urged that the king of Colchos had nothing to do with the violence offered to Io ; she was carried off by the Phœnicians. But, according to the Persians, all the nations of Asia composed but one body, of which they were the head. Any injury, therefore, offered to one of the members, was considered as an hostility against the whole. Thus, as we see in a succeeding paragraph, the Persians considered the Greeks as their enemies, from the time of the destruction of Troy.—*Larchet.*

Though this extract may appear long, yet we have not curtailed it, because, with a proper specimen of our translator's style, it affords a better collection of the notes of different kinds, than any other we can collect. We have carefully compared it with the original, and, as we have said, find the version faithful, generally elegant, and in one or two passages singularly happy. We shall not hesitate to style the translation of the first passage happy, notwithstanding the inversion, which is very different from the Grecian costume, and improper in this place. The singular propriety which we wish to notice is in the words 'Historical Essay,' *Ἱστορίας ἀπὸδεξις ἡδε*—notwithstanding it has occasioned the following additional note.

'In my version, as it now stands, I have not satisfied a friend, whose opinion I respect no less than I value his esteem. This gentleman considers the expression of "Historical Essay," as not conveying an adequate explanation of the original Greek. He approves of the criticism in Jortin's Remarks on Ecclesiastical History, vol. i. p. 59. to which I refer the reader.

'History, in the Greek, is derived from a verb, signifying to enquire minutely; and it is the opinion of Kuster, as well as of other eminent critics, that the word History itself, in its original sense, implies accurate enquiry, and stands properly for what the author's own researches demonstrated to him, and what he learned by the information of others. According to this interpretation, the first words of Herodotus might be rendered thus:

"Herodotus of Halicarnassus produces this work, the result both of his own researches, and of the enquiries made by him of others."

'This is certainly paraphrastical, but the criticism is ingenious, and appears to be well founded. The material point to be established from it is, that in the time of Herodotus, *Ἱστορίη* did not signify History, the word then used in that sense was *συγγραφή*.'

If the translation was perfectly literal, it would be 'this specimen of historical enquiry;' for to explain what every abstract term may originally mean, is surely not necessary; and that the word for history, in the time of Herodotus, was *συγγραφή*, has not yet been proved to the satisfaction of the learned. We cannot blame Mr. Beloe for reading *λογιοί περ-σεων*, instead of *λογοί*, as in this he coincides with every critic; nor can we defend, in every instance, the copy quoted by Plutarch, in which the latter reading is found; but, as Herodotus speaks in general of traditional stories, and never refers to written accounts, we think, on the whole, *λογοί* the more probable word.—We shall next select an instance or two

of curiosity. The following account of the Grecian theogony shows the attention and the sagacity of the historian.

‘ The Pelasgians, as I was informed at Dodona, formerly offered all things indiscriminately to the gods. They distinguished them by no name or surname, for they were hitherto unacquainted with either; but they called them gods, which by its etymology means disposers, from observing the orderly disposition and distribution of the various parts of the universe. They learned, but not till a late period, the names of the divinities from the Ægyptians, and Bacchus was the last whom they knew. Upon this subject they afterwards consulted the oracle of Dodona, by far the most ancient oracle of Greece, and at the period of which we speak, the only one. They desired to know whether they might with propriety adopt the names which they had learned of the barbarians, and were answered that they might; they have accordingly used them ever since in their rites of sacrifice, and from the Pelasgi they were communicated to the Greeks.

‘ Of the origin of each deity, whether they have all of them always existed, as also of their form, their knowledge is very recent indeed. The invention of the Grecian theogony, the names, the honours, the forms, and the functions of the deities may with propriety be ascribed to Hesiod and to Homer, who I believe lived four hundred years, and not more, before myself. If I may give my opinion, the poets who are reported to have been before these, were certainly after them. What I have said of the names and origin of the gods, has been on the authority of the priests of Dodona; of Hesiod and of Homer I have delivered my own sentiments.

‘ Of the two oracles of Greece and Lybia, the Ægyptians speak as follows: I was told by the ministers of the Theban Jupiter, that the Phœnicians had violently carried off from Thebes two priestesses, one of whom had been sold into Africa, the other into Greece; they added, that the commencement of the above oracles must be assigned to these two women. On my requesting to know their authority for these assertions, they answered, that after a long and ineffectual search after these priestesses, they had finally learned what they had told me.’

‘ My opinion of the matter is this: If the Phœnicians did in reality carry away these two priestesses, and sell one to Africa, the other to Greece, this latter must have been carried to the Thesproti, which country, though part of what is now termed Greece, was formerly called Pelasgia. That, although in a state of servitude, she erected, under the shade of a beech tree, a sacred edifice to Jupiter, which she might very naturally be prompted to do, from the remembrance of the temple of Jupiter at Thebes, whence

whence she was taken. Thus she instituted the oracle, and having learned the Greek language, might probably relate that by the same Phœnicians her sister was sold for a slave to Africa.

‘ The name of doves was probably given them because, being strangers, the sound of their voices might to the people of Dodona seem to resemble the tone of those birds. When the woman, having learned the language, delivered her thoughts in words which were generally understood, the dove might be said to have spoken with an human voice. Before she had thus accomplished herself, her voice might appear like that of a dove. It certainly cannot be supposed that a dove should speak with a human voice; and the circumstance of her being black, explains to us her *Ægyptian* origin.

‘ The two oracles of *Ægyptian* Thebes and of Dodona have an entire resemblance to each other. The art of divination, as now practised in our temples, is thus derived from *Ægypt*; at least the *Ægyptians* were the first who introduced the sacred festivals, processions and supplications, and from them the Greeks were instructed. Of this it is to me a sufficient testimony, that these religious ceremonies are in Greece but of modern date, whereas in *Ægypt* they have been in use from the remotest antiquity.’

All these passages seem to be translated with great accuracy and precision. We shall add but one other extract.

‘ In all my intercourse with *Ægyptians*, Lybians, and Greeks, I have only met with one person who pretended to have any knowledge of the sources of the Nile. This was the priest who had the care of the sacred treasures in the temple of Minerva, at Sais. He assured me that on this subject he possessed the most unquestionable intelligence, though his assertions never obtained my serious confidence. He informed me, that betwixt Syene, a city of the Thebais, and Elephantine, there were two mountains, respectively terminating in an acute summit: the name of the one was Crophî, of the other Mophî. He affirmed, that the sources of the Nile, which were fountains of unfathomable depth, flowed from the centres of these mountains; that one of these streams divided *Ægypt*, and directed its course to the north; the other in like manner flowed towards the south, through *Æthiopia*. To confirm his assertion, that those springs were unfathomable, he told me, that Psammetchus, sovereign of the country, had ascertained it by experiment; he let down a rope of the length of several thousand orgyæ, but could find no bottom. This was the priest’s information, on the truth of which I presume not to determine. If such an experiment was really made, there might perhaps in these springs be certain vortices, occasioned by the reverberation of the water from the mountains, of force sufficient

to buoy up the sounding-line, and prevent its reaching the bottom.'

We had purposed to select some critical remarks, &c. from the additional notes; but these extracts have swelled our article to a sufficient length; and we can only add, that a curious disquisition on the manners of the Athenians, the prevailing trait in whose character, Mr. Beloe thinks, was indolence, an excellent Life of Herodotus, and a copious index, are added. On the whole, this work reflects great credit on the ingenious translator, who seems to have displayed in his attempt equal abilities, taste, and learning.

Strictures on the Ecclesiastical and Literary History of Ireland: from the most Ancient Times till the Introduction of the Roman Ritual, and the Establishment of Papal Supremacy, by Henry II. King of England. Also, an Historical Sketch of the Constitution and Government of Ireland, from the most early authenticated Period down to the Year 1783. By Thomas Campbell, LL. D. 8vo. 6s. Boards. White, Dublin. 1789.

OUR delay of this work may be considered rather as a compliment than a mark of disrespect, for the circumstances of the publication of the Collectanea, and other accidents, had prevented our notice of the object of Dr. Campbell's 'Strictures;' and it would have been disadvantageous to have introduced him as contending with a shadow, which, to readers in general, might have seemed one of his own creation. Mr. Pinkerton's work led to a more extensive detail than may seem suitable to the limits of our Journal; but it was a subject which, from the time of bishop Stillingfleet, had been neglected, and which the fame of the modern Ossian had contributed to distort and to misrepresent. The extent of our examination of that work has enabled us to be more concise in those which follow, and we have been careful not to anticipate the arguments of our present author. The torch of common sense alone is sufficient to illuminate all the devious tracks of a controversy of this kind.

The defenders of the antiquity of Ireland, not contented with drawing the sources of its population from the earliest times, bring, as we have observed, to this remote island, a polished people, possessing every art of luxury and refinement. This visionary system we have seen supported by the etymological arguments, which prove only the wide extent of one original language, and these often so far strained as to render the whole subject ridiculous. When we look at the evidences of the refinement of Ireland, we perceive only the rudest monuments

numents of a savage race; when we examine the arguments adduced to show the degree of their literary attainments, we find the learning of the middle ages blended with their superstition; and the traditionary remains of laws evidently meliorated by the spirit of the gospel, as they were reduced to writing after the period of St. Patrick. The fact seems to be, that Ireland was peopled by different tribes on its different coasts. The kingdom was consequently divided into little independent principalities, constantly at war; a political situation, incompatible with national power, with the more elegant arts, and the refinements of manners. After the time of St. Patrick, Christianity seems to have humanised the Irish, who, in capacity and literary attainments, were certainly not inferior to any nation of Europe; but, by no uncommon change, religion, once introduced, soon put on the garb of superstition, and the inundation of monks succeeding to that of bards, disseminated the credit of this 'sacred island,' and contributed by an easy anachronism, assistance to the defenders of its great antiquity and early civilization. Whatever may have been the source of the Druidical superstition, it seems to have been confined. Its meridian splendor was found in Britain: in Gaul it existed in a feeble state; in Germany, in the ancient Scandinavia; and in Spain, it was not known. To the arguments formerly adduced against its existence in Ireland, may now be added, that from the three last kingdoms, this western island owes the greater proportion of its inhabitants, and of course from these it could not borrow the religion of the oak; and it is still less likely that the Irish Druids should differ so far from those of England, as to commit to writing, in the Etruscan character, mysteries which the Etruscans never knew; and that a religion should be brought from Greece, which Greece, or its instructress, India, never acknowledged.

In this outline of what careful enquiry has suggested, it will be found that we differ a little from Dr. Campbell, particularly in the circumstance of the Irish Druids; but, in general, his work is, we think, equally able and judicious. As originally written, in the form of letters, which were published in a newspaper under the signature of Ierneus, it is perhaps a little too desultory and unconnected; but the same cause has permitted him to indulge a vein of wit and humour, which greatly enlivens the drier historical discussions. Dr. Campbell begins with acute reflections on the high antiquity which the Irish authors bestow on their country, and examines with some care a few of the more pointed arguments. His observations on the luxuriant description of the magnificence of the palace of Tamar we shall select:

' Now as to this fragment, pronounced to be valuable, the version here given of it is either true, or it is not. If it be true and faithful to the original, then I ask would the republic of letters have been at this day much the poorer if this treasure had never been brought to light? Does it exalt our ideas of the quondam magnificence of the Irish monarchy, or does it excite our contempt of the bombastic ravings of such clumsy romance? A palace of 300 feet square, formed or constructed on three towers! And Niall, the builder, surnamed of the nine towers, because he had made a vow to build three.

' On the other hand, if this same fragment of fragments be not truly rendered, then is the translator responsible for its imperfections. But that it cannot be free from errors may be safely argued from the epithet of nine towers given to Niall*. For who before ever heard of a king of Ireland called Niall, of the *nine towers*? yet who, how moderately soever versed in history, that has not heard of Niall, of the *nine hostages*? a name better authenticated than any in the whole pagan dynasty; for it was he, who, in one of his triumphant expeditions, made a captive of St. Patrick, when as yet a little boy. And do not the Irish bards, senachies, annalists, and historians, ever fond of pompous and high sounding titles, with one voice style him the *Hero of the nine Hostages*?

' May we not then, without any great harshness of metaphor, say that an intellectual prism is still wanting to separate and analyse the mixed lights which fall upon the subject of our antiquities? Truth and falsehood, blended together, are often indiscriminately rejected by superficial enquirers. It concerns us, therefore, not only to split the various colours in the rays of truth, but also to distinguish the different shades in the lines of error. Our skill in the arts will not be the less, if we disbelieve that our ancestors built Braganza, or that they had the use of telescopes three thousand years ago. Nor shall we be the better philosophers for being persuaded that our Gaelic Druids were masters of the Greek sophists. Nor yet the more learned theologists, for being acquainted with the Irish language.'

* The reason why this prince was distinguished by the title of the hero of the *nine hostages*, and is called in the Irish language *Niall Naigiallach*, was because he had nine hostages in his custody, five from the provinces of Ireland, and four from the kingdom of Scotland:—for the word *giall* in Irish signifies a *hostage*. Keating. p. 318.

' This is fully confirmed by Lhuyd upon the word *giall*, where he gives this very *Niall Naigiallach* as an example: and recites more countries than Keating has done, from whence our hero got the *Pledges* or *Hostages*. This is the only Irish Dictionary in my possession, and I deem it full sufficient. Flaherty also observes, " *Niellus rex ob potentiam, profapiam & progeniem, magnus, alio cognomento Naigiallach; hoc est: a novem obsidibus appellatus, quod totidem regionibus subditis obfides imperitarit. Ogygia, p. 400.* But all this and more may be overturned by an oriental glossary, with as much facility as a palace 300 feet square may be raised on *three towers*.

We remember a similar etymological error in the *Collectanea*, where the author, endeavouring to prove the eastern origin of some Irish tribes, adduces one of the ancient appellations which unluckily also signifies a pirate and freebooter. We did not attack the edifice, because this derivation supported his argument of their Etruscan original better than his own; it showed, however, the fallacy of such reasoning. We shall select also the commentary on the Fifth Number of the *Collectanea*, relating to the Brehon laws. We formerly observed, that there was no evidence of their being reduced to writing before the Christian æra, and that they were probably collected from the imperfect state of traditionary maxims.

‘ As this is a cardinal point, we could not make this quotation shorter; not only because we would not for an instant be suspected of misrepresentation, but because we shall have frequent and immediate occasions to refer to it. Wherefore, reader, observe: 1. It is there laid down by the colonel, that this collection or code of laws was made partly by Aicill, juriconsult of Carbre, and partly by Ceanfaela, juriconsult of Donal.—2. At page 8, he shews you, that Carbre succeeded his father Cormac in 279; and of course Aicill did then, if ever, exist.—3. At the same page he shews that the above-named Donal Mac Hugh succeeded Conalan in 605; and yet in the quotation he tells you that Aicill lived after Ceanfaela’s time; so that as Ceanfaela was juriconsult of Donal, here is a small anachronism of near two hundred years. But this being only an incidental error, which does not shake his main position, we pass it over for things more essential.

‘ Observe, therefore, in the fourth place, that at page 20, after having exhibited what he calls *clear proofs* of the literature of the Irish nation in heathenish times, it is said, “Here ends the fragment; so that all the rest of the *Blai* are wanting, and all that part composed by Ceanfaela and promulgated by Donal.” Of course, all that he has brought forward is the composition of Aicill, who, in the above long quotation is said to have lived in the reigns of Cormac and Carbre; and so he himself states it at page 18: “Here ends the part called *ar na sefer*, or the explication of the terms, and immediately follows the part called *ar na blai*, or the sections of law called *blai*, and do all belong to the legislation of Cormac, and his son Carbre Liffeachair.” Besides, Donal being “a Christian prince,” the writings of his reign could not be supposed to prove any thing in point, for the editor lays it down that the letter of the law is of pagan institution.

‘ These things premised, and it being kept in mind that Cormac and Carbre flourished in the third century, and it being well known that Christianity was not introduced into Ireland till the fifth, it follows

follows that both Carbre and his jurifconsult Aicill must have been heathens. Yet now, reader, "if that thou canst read," read what is put into either the letter or the explication (no matter which) of the code of laws, composed and promulged by these heathens, Aicill and Carbre, the jurifconsult and legislator, at p. 11. "The next page begins a kind of exordium to the work thus, *aflach on atbair for Ebba & tolnugad do Ebba fria*, i. e. The serpent presented the forbidden fruit to Eve, and Eve consented to receive it. Imarbas is the prohibition of a legislator. *Com fugud do Adam fria slatarta um coimde*, i. e. Eve delivered it to Adam in disobedience to the Trinity."

In the second volume of the Collectanea, this Aicill is expressly said to be a place, and it appears to be the place where Carbre wrote; from an erroneous translation it is personified, and made a jurifconsult and a physician; for by a similar error, the king who was wounded in the eye, and said to be sent to Aicill to be cured; in reality retired to Aicill, as this misfortune rendered him no longer capable of reigning, for the Irish never acknowledged any king who was in any respect mutilated.

Such is the manner in which the different arguments are answered, and as we cannot multiply specimens, so the desultory method of our author prevents us from a more regular analysis. Dr. Campbell seems to have shown with great accuracy, that the ancient Scots of Ireland were Scythians, and agrees with Mr. Pinkerton in thinking that the Firbolg and the Danan were the Belgæ and Danes. The Partholan, the Nemedian, and the Milesian colonies were probably bands of predatory incursors, denominated from the tribe or the chief, for Ireland, divided into petty hostile principalities, was generally a prey to every invader who had address enough, and much was not required, to unite with some weak and discontented chief.

In the Ecclesiastical History, our author enlarges a little on the life of Patrick, but proves that the conversion of the island of saints was not at once general. He ought, however, to have added some facts to support his opinion of the Irish Druids, whose sanguinary system, and the veneration in which they were held, where Druidism prevailed, would have rendered them powerful antagonists of Christianity. He shows, indeed, that some of the monarchs continued to be Pagans after the time of Patrick, though they did not seemingly interrupt the progress of the new faith. This, however, is a sufficient argument in opposition to Polydore Virgil, who represents the Irish, from the time of their conversion, acknowledging no su-

preme lord but the pope: in reality, Gregory the First, in opposition to the claims of the bishop of Constantinople, contends only for equality, since Rome, even in his time, and under the dominion of this enterprising pontiff, had set up no claim of hierarchy. The anecdotes of the different Hebridian and Irish saints are very entertaining, and some of their Latin poetry transcribed is truly classical. Cean Faodlah, or Ceanfacla, or Cinfala, seems really to have written the ancient Irish grammar instead of translating it (as col. Vallancey supposed) from Forchern, a few years before the Christian æra. One passage adduced renders this opinion highly probable.

The famous Vigilius, Solivagus, John Scotus, and various other learned men of Ireland, claimed by Scotland, from their being styled Scoti, next pass in review. Among these is the famous Ossian, whose poems are now generally considered as polished copies of the songs of the later centuries, pretty certainly later than the eleventh. The rest of the ecclesiastical history of Ireland, as it presents nothing very interesting to general readers, we shall pass over. The detail is in general accurate.

The Supplement contains the controversy carried on in the Dublin newspapers by Ierneus and his friends, and the friend of col. Vallancey, under the signature of 'Candid.' In this contest, as usual, the triumph is carried too far, for it cannot be denied, that col. Vallancey, to much labour, has added many marks of extensive knowledge and ingenious research. We may repeat that he has failed in his proof, and mistaken the foundation on which he should have rested; but he deserves not the ridicule and contempt too copiously displayed in this correspondence.

The last part of this volume is an 'Historical Sketch of the Constitution and Government of Ireland, from the most early *authenticated* Period down to the Year 1783.' This Sketch was drawn up for the new edition of Camden by Mr. Gough, and is republished, after correcting two or three errors of inadvertence. We will not engage in the discussion of the independency of Ireland, or how far it was conquered by Henry; nor would it be proper to offer any opinion, at this time, respecting the restricting acts. While Ireland testifies a warm attachment to England, the latter should certainly adopt every measure that might cherish this friendship. Separately they may become an easy prey to an ambitious neighbour: together they are powerful. If strife during a common danger should ever exist, they ought to recollect the passage in Tacitus, '*dum singuli pugnant, universi vincuntur.*'

Letters and Papers on Agriculture, Planting, &c. addressed to the Society instituted at Bath, for the Encouragement of Agriculture, Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, within the Counties of Somerset, Wilts, Gloucester, and Dorset, and the City and County of Bristol. Vol. V. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Dilly. 1790.

THIS fifth volume of the Bath Society's Transactions commences with some remarks on the improvements of agriculture, that have been successfully introduced into this kingdom within the last fifty years. By improvements Mr. Wimpey understands such alterations in the practice as increase the value of the produce in a greater proportion than the expence. These consist in,

- ‘ 1. Improvements in the art of tillage.
- ‘ 2. In the invention of new implements, or improvements of those in use before.
- ‘ 3. In the quantity of seed most proper to be sown, and in the regular distribution of the same both as to distance and depth.
- ‘ 4. In suiting the crop to the nature and condition of the soil.
- ‘ 5. In the rotation, or most beneficial succession of crops.
- ‘ 6. In manures, natural and artificial.
- ‘ 7. In the successful introduction of many new articles in field culture.
- ‘ 8. In the advantages of applying them to rearing and fattening of cattle, &c. &c.’

The art of tillage was always considered of importance, where agriculture was at all understood, and particularly insisted on by the Roman husbandmen. But, as we can only mention what may be curious or useful, we shall hasten to observe, that our author strongly recommends winter-fallows, and thinks they improve the ground to a greater value than the advantages derived from winter-feeding in stubble and eddishes. Mr. Wimpey speaks highly of the Norfolk and the double plough; and, for particular purposes, that with two mould boards. It makes open furrows for planting the potatoes, and, by splitting the ridges, covers the sets: employed after the horse-hoeing, it earths up the plants. Our author is an advocate also for setting wheat. On the subject of manures he does not speak very philosophically or intelligibly; and this conveys no imputation, when we add, that we have little knowledge of the action of any manure, except what produces a mechanical change. Of the new grasses, Mr. Wimpey still prefers the saintfoin and lucerne; he speaks in favourable terms of the mangel wurtzel as a food for pigs, and thinks, from his slight experience, the Carolina grass-seed promises to be useful.

Turnips alone does not, in his opinion, give any disagreeable flavour to milk; but, when the cows are driven into the field where turnips are often mixed with charlock, that inconvenience follows, and seems to arise from the weed: Hogs and cows, particularly cows which are fattening their calves, are said to eat them greedily and with advantage.

Mr. Wimpey's next essay is on the easiest and most economical method of cultivating potatoes. He sets them in ground of twenty shillings an acre, and finds a clear profit of above twelve pounds; the expences only about seven pounds twelve shillings per acre. There are various other essays on this very profitable article in the volume before us, the substance of which we shall shortly notice. Dr. Anderson gives up his former opinion of the permanency of the sorts of potatoe; but it is more pleasing to find that, from these varieties, he can produce potatoes at any season of the year, and we may expect to see young potatoes on our tables in May as well as in September. This idea we have long entertained, and pointed out the methods of effecting it; but the farmers, who are unused to experiments, will seldom be led to precarious trials. We see nothing very satisfactory respecting the sorts. The kidney is undoubtedly the best for the table, but it increases * so slowly, as not to afford sufficient profit to the farmer: the other sort he mentions is, we suspect, what is styled the oak-apple, which is of an excellent flavour and a very profitable root. Mr. Wimpey finds also that potatoes, cut about the size of a pullet's egg, or something larger, afford the most successful crop. Different accounts are added of the utility of potatoes as food for cattle, and even for horses.

Mr. Wimpey observes, that the farmer, whose estate is arable land, with difficulty, or at least not with advantage to be brought into pasture, may still very profitably carry on a dairy, by feeding his cows on potatoes, turnips, carrots, &c. or even saintfoin, if he takes care, during the first years, to keep it clean from weeds; and, from our author's calculations, it appears not an unpromising plan. The same author adds some judicious observations on the drill-husbandry, and the propriety of lessening the price of patent machines used in husbandry. Patents may undoubtedly be eluded by an ingenious artist with ease, and very useful machines made at a small expence.

Dr. Anderson's remarks, on the management of the dairy, and the salting of butter for long voyages, display a very considerable degree of knowledge and attention; but, from the lit-

* Its increase even in favourable soils is less than one-third compared with the other sorts.

the experience we have had in this way, they seem unnecessarily minute. Our knowledge is, however, local, and at a distance from the spot where our author's experiments were made. His aphorisms on the nature of milk we shall transcribe.

‘Aphorism I. Of the milk that is drawn from any cow at one time, that which comes off at the first is always thinner, and of a much worse quality, than that which comes afterwards, and the richness goes on continually increasing to the very last drop that can be drawn from the udder at that time. The average proportion is said to be about 12 to 1.

‘Aphorism II. If milk be put up in a dish and allowed to stand till it throws up cream, that portion of cream which rises first to the surface is richer in quality, and greater in quantity, than what rises in a second equal portion of time; and the cream that rises in the second interval of time is greater in quantity and richer in quality than that which rises in a third equal space of time; and that of the third than the fourth, and so on, the cream that rises decreases in quantity, and declines in quality continually as long as any rises to the surface.

‘Aphorism III. Thick milk always throws up a smaller proportion of the cream it actually contains to the surface, than milk that is thinner, but that cream is of a richer quality; and if water be added to that thick milk, it will afford a considerably greater quantity of cream than it would have done if allowed to remain pure; but its quality is at the same time greatly debased.

‘Aphorism IV. Milk which is put into a bucket or other proper vessel, and carried in it to any considerable distance, so as to be much agitated and in part cooled before it be put into the milk-pans to settle for cream, never throws up so much nor so rich cream, as if the same milk had been put into the milk-pans directly after it was milked.’

Butter, we are told, is more rich to the taste if one part of sugar, one of nitre, and two of the large Spanish salt are mixed for preserving it. This would not, we think, suit an English palate, though we have no doubt but this composition would be more effectual as an antiseptic. The description of the dairy, and of the various utensils, is worthy of strict attention, though the author is mistaken in supposing that all earthen vessels are glazed with lead, or that this calx of lead is soluble in the acid of milk. Even brass vessels, with moderate cleanliness, do not impart any taste to the cream. These are, however, certainly not to be recommended. The white stone-ware is the best kind of porcelaine for the use of a dairy, or the common brown earthen ware, glazed frequently with sea-sand only.

Furze tops bruised, or the tender shoots, are often eat by
cattle;

cattle; and Dr. Anderson describes a machine for the purpose of bruising them. They seem to be very nutritious; but some of our author's remarks on *cultivating* furze, and his cautions lest the grass should kill it, appear strange to an English farmer. The use of fir-tops for breeding cattle, horses, and sheep, in times of scarcity, is an object of considerable importance.

The mangel wurtzel, another resource in times of scarcity, we have heard much of; tho' its true merit and its real character seem not yet to be accurately ascertained. The first author, who speaks of it in this collection, is Dr. Anderson, who did not find it grow with luxuriance, or very advantageous. Though it bore the cold of the winter 1788 in some places, it was killed in others; and the succulence of its leaves renders it liable to be injured by the frost that soon succeeds rain. Silk-worms do not feed on its leaves; and, in no respect, under the management of Dr. Anderson, was it preferable to the turnip, though there is some doubt whether he had the seed of the genuine sort. Mr. Bromwich, near Bridgnorth, speaks of it in more favourable terms: he thinks it more nutritious than the potatoe, and particularly useful in fattening pigs, and in feeding cows, without injuring the flavour of the milk. Mr. Bernard, of Crowcombe, thinks a saccharine liquor might be drawn from the root with advantage. Sir Thomas Beevor finds that all cattle, after a little use, will feed on it readily; but is of opinion, and several of the other correspondents agree with him, that taking up and cleaning the roots will render it too expensive.

After Dr. Anderson's communications, is a paper on the breed of sheep. The author makes one or two little mistakes, particularly respecting broad-cloth being manufactured wholly of Spanish wool: his proposals, for meliorating the breed of sheep, are very judicious, and the Society for this purpose has been since established in the way he has recommended. One fact of importance we shall transcribe.

• That Spanish wool has been long an article of import into this country every person knows, but few know exactly the amount of that trade, or the sums of money that are annually sent out of this kingdom for that article, most of which is consumed in cloathing ourselves. By an account that was laid before parliament last year it appears that, on an average of several years past, about three millions of pounds of Spanish wool have been imported by us; but that the amount of this importation is augmenting from year to year, and that in particular, in the year 1787, no less than four millions one hundred and eighty-eight thousand two hundred and eighty pounds of Spanish wool were imported into Britain, the value of which was upwards of *six hundred thousand*

pounds. An immense sum, to be needlessly given by us for the purpose of encouraging the agriculture of Spain, that might be infinitely more beneficially employed in augmenting the products of our own fields, and promoting, by the cheapness of the raw materials, the manufactures and the commerce of this country.*

Mr. Locke's account of the improvement of meadow-land is prefaced by a history of that part of Somersetshire in the neighbourhood of Bridgwater*, called the Marshes. The editor apologises for inserting it, but we found the history truly entertaining, and the curious enquirer may collect much information from it, except that the etymologies are often incorrect, and we can scarcely agree with the author in his derivation of a hide of land, furlong, &c. The part of the letter, which relates to improvement of meadow-land, is a kind of history of Mr. Locke's agricultural life; and his mode is chiefly adapted to the low land gained from rivers or the sea. His principal improvement consists in levelling and draining the field, and employing a large quantity of manure. His gutters are 33 feet distant, 20 inches deep, and 10 wide. His manure, besides the common farming composts, are peat-ashes, and sometimes sea-sand. If the ashes are too copiously strewed, we have found them injurious; and sea-sand is chiefly useful from the sea-salt it contains, or mechanically from its influence in dividing the too coherent clay. Baron Haak's composition for manure was only sea-sand melted, as we have been assured by a very able chemist, who examined it. The best manure from the sea-shore is, however, the sea-wrack, or that kind of sea-sand which consists of minute shells; and this last is, we have been informed, that which is employed on the coasts of Cornwall.

Another manure, described in this volume, is plaster of Paris. Mr. Kirkpatrick, in his letter on this subject, has given the result of the experience of a Penſylvanian farmer. It is pulverised and sown as a top manure, very durable, almost equally useful on sand, loam, or clay, though seemingly best adapted to the first. For grass, six bushels are sown on an acre; but it generally assists also the crop of Indian corn, when a table spoonful is sown on a hill. It should be put on in the spring, after vegetation has begun, and the frosts are entirely over. The Americans procure this plaster from France; and there are copious beds of it in different parts of England. As we have said that the philosophy of manures is little understood, we cannot be expected to explain its action: we see only that

* To the north towards the Bristol Channel.

it is connected with the powerful and extensive influence of calcareous substances.

A manure, which we are better acquainted with, is the river weed. Mr. Wagstaffe, in this volume, gives the continuation of his observations, and he has found it succeed with every kind of grain and foddering root.

Mr. Onely describes his rotation of crops, which are oats, with rye-grass; the grass sprinkled with dung and earth mixed in the winter, and constantly fed till the succeeding autumn; then wheat: next, the small forward Spanish bean, planted on two rows in four furrows, and three times hand-hoed. Then follow the oats, &c. beginning the rotation again. Our author speaks highly of the cultivation of carrots, as excellent and profitable feeding for horses and cattle. Even horses for quick work may be properly fed on them, mixed with corn. Sir Thomas Bevor speaks highly of the turnip-rooted cabbage as fodder for cattle in the spring, and the roota baga, we apprehend, a kind of turnip very hardy and less liable to accidents than the common turnip, for the same purpose.

Mr. Wagstaffe's remarks on planting barren heights, relate to a local experiment on a sandy soil with a southern aspect. The *populus alba* and *tremula* succeeded very well, while the more tender trees, as well as the hardier pines and firs, died. The birch and sycamore succeeded moderately. Poplars thrive very well in a warm moist soil in the neighbourhood of Norwich, as we are informed in a very able (anonymous) essay from that county. An *abele* tree, planted on a bank about thirteen feet broad, with water on each side, flourishes very rapidly. It was planted under the name of a Dutch beech. Cuttings from this tree, it is said in the essay before us, flourish in every soil, particularly in a barren ooze, near cold springs and in a high barren ground. The ash, on good meadow ground, succeeded well. Oaks grow at first slowly, but, from the accounts before us, they seem to have increased afterwards rapidly and uniformly; and our author thinks that, if a register could be kept for 100 or 150 years, they would be found as profitable as any other trees. An improved method for planting ash for hurdles, hoops, &c. is described in this volume, of which an abridgement is impracticable.

What relates to corn we must introduce with sir John Anstruther's experiments on drilling, which are highly in favour of this mode of husbandry; and we may also mention, though it is impossible to describe without the plate, Mr. Cooke's newly improved drill machine. Mr. Adam, in his observations on ploughs, describes Mr. Cooke's swing-plough, the body and share of which is cast-iron, fitted up with a coulter and the

necessary wood-work. It is described as drawn in the stiffest lands with three horses, and to answer extremely well, so as to make a furrow seven or eight inches deep. The mould-board is twisted. Our author's strictures on ploughs, and the Society's experiments, we find a difficulty in rendering intelligible. On the subject of sowing, Mr. Wagstaffe recommends the observation of different natural phænomena, and advises the farmer to connect these operations with the appearance or departure of migrating birds, the appearance of blossoms, and the fall of leaves. In his experience, he says, that he has derived considerable advantages from such assistance. Mr. Hazard has communicated a memoir on the great advantages of hand-hoeing, and Mr. Wagstaffe a singular fact respecting smutty wheat. In some ears of smutty wheat a farmer observed a few sound grains. These he brined and sowed. They grew; the ears were uncontaminated by smut, were closer set, and more numerously productive than other strains of wheat. This wheat has been kept by itself, propagated, and produced a very profitable variety, which retains the same useful peculiarities. One other observation occurs, on the time during which Indian corn preserves its vegetating powers, and in the instance mentioned in this volume, it was thirty-four years.

We have followed in some degree the order of the articles, connecting only with each subject, as it occurred, those observations which related to it in the subsequent articles. The rest is so truly miscellaneous, that we can find no clue but priority. The Guinea and Scotch grasses produced in the West Indies are described by Mr. Spooner. The first resembles wheat when growing, and will probably bear every diversity of climate. It grows very fast, is very nutritious, and propagated better by setting than by seed. With a little care, the field never requires to be replaced. The Scotch grass is larger, thicker, and of a deeper green. It is better for horses and mules than for sheep and cattle, and is propagated also by planting.

Mr. Gray's observations on the management of flax, so far as they are new, relate to an improvement recommended to save the time and other inconveniences of steeping, by using hot water. It is said to answer very well. Mr. Key's caution respecting bees we shall transcribe.

' It is a prevailing and general opinion, that bees never swarm without first shewing some previous signs or tokens; and that they seldom swarm until about the middle of the day. Those who keep bees in the duplicate manner, by setting one hive or box over another, are misled by the writers on bees to believe, that by such kind of contrivance, they are prevented from swarming at all.

Both which opinions are assuredly ill founded. I take upon me to assert, that one third of the prime, or first swarms escape unperceived; and that, generally, without the least indication of their design.

‘The seasons and hours of swarming are also much mistaken: they sometimes swarm in March, frequently in April, and from seven in the morning till four in the evening; many rise so early and so late. Nor will a transient viewing of them now and then suffice; one minute shall present no appearance of swarming, and in the next they shall suddenly issue, and fly quite away. Those that are duplicated are equally as prone as those in single straw hives; for all will equally pursue great Nature’s law, to swarm. Without, therefore, a bee-herd, or person appointed for constant watching, and not casually, but without intermission, from seven to four, the proprietor will have his expectations, in a great measure disappointed. A child or aged person may be hired for the purpose, at the easy charge of 2d. or 3d. a day, whereby, if only one swarm be preserved, it will prove an adequate compensation for the expence; besides being sure of losing none of the rest, and the preventing a great deal of anxiety, and often a very fruitless trouble, to those who keep four stocks or more.’

The cyder wine, described by Mr. Stevens, was prepared by boiling cyder to half its quantity, and raising a short imperfect fermentation by means of yeast. It was in every respect improperly treated, and did not succeed. A little impregnation of copper was found in it; and Dr. Fothergill, in the subsequent memoirs, again retails all the numerous inconveniences of copper and lead, with the various methods by which they gain admission into the human body. We have no hesitation in saying, that the greatest part of these memoirs is truly frivolous; and, though we would not advise the use of copper sauce-pans, without occasionally examining the tin, or adding litharge to weak cyder, injury from either source is exceedingly rare; and weak minds are rendered uneasy very often without the slightest foundation. The danger from lead very rarely occurs; and the taste of copper is too peculiar not to excite suspicion before any inconvenience can arise.

Mr. Crook rears calves without milk, by linseed jelly dissolved in hay tea. The utility of the Leith cart, the description of Mr. Murrel’s washing machine, and the report respecting the trial of ploughs, in April 1790, can be only read with advantage in the volume.

It has been a subject of complaint that this Society publishes too fast; but the delay of this volume, which appeared two years after the former, may seem to obviate the complaint. We are, however, sorry to observe, that this delay has not contrib-

buted to the maturity and excellence of the work. Much is crude and imperfect, many parts uncertain, and some, we fear, erroneous,

A Treatise on One Hundred and Eighteen Principal Diseases of the Eyes and Eyelids, &c. in which are communicated several new Discoveries relative to the Cure of Defects in Vision; with many Original Prescriptions. By William Rowley, M. D. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Hookham. 1790.

THIS 'little organ,' observes M. Janin, 'still presents a rich harvest for numerous observers;' but we may add, that its diseases have been more carefully investigated than those of any other part of the body, and are at present treated with more address, skill, and success. The work before us is a very elaborate one, comprehending all the diseases of the eye, and many more than we ever heard of, while the most common, under the Grecian garb of euphonous, but unusual terms, are almost new acquaintance. We need not conceal that the genera are much too numerous, and the species unreasonably multiplied, in consequence of being produced by different causes, or occurring in peculiar circumstances. Many genera are by no means diseases, and many either absolutely incurable, or requiring no peculiar treatment.—A description of the eye and a short theory of vision are prefixed.

In this profuse multitude of names, it is difficult to find such a clue as will enable us to give a proper account of our author's labours. We shall, therefore, mention a few of his peculiar opinions, and give a more particular account of his attempts in the explanation of one or two disorders of this delicate organ,

One general direction which pervades almost every part of this volume, is the use of the antimoniated mercury in chronic obstructions, and of dry spare diet in inflammations, and every disease in which a fulness of the vessels is suspected. On the first subject there is a little inconsistency in one passage, where the combination of antimony and mercury is said to be essential to the cure; and afterwards, the æthiops mineralis is alone recommended. From frequent observation, we are convinced that the æthiops mineral is inert, unless made with unwashed flowers of sulphur, or given, as by some empirics, with cream of tartar; in each case we have seen it produce salivation. But in our author's hands the antimoniated mercury is almost equally inert, for he recommends the combination of Plummer, expressly directing the sulphur auratum to be triturated for a length of time, and very carefully with the calomel. In this case, the power of the calomel is considerably weakened;

weakened; and when we wish to depend on the Plummer's pill, we direct the mass to be made without the calomel, which is afterwards added, and the whole is well beaten together. With this medicine we have often endeavoured to cure syphilis, and to a certain extent it acts with success; but after some time, the good effects seem lost, and it will not complete the cure. The power of the calomel even in this way is greatly weakened, for a very large dose may be given without affecting the bowels or salivating.—But to return:

The dry diet, our author tells us, is absolutely necessary in all the cases which we have mentioned; and when we recollect that the peculiar stimulus is over distension, it seems to be a reasonable injunction: it certainly, however, ought to be combined with copious purging. In diseases of the eye-lids our author speaks of the good effects of the unguentum hydragryri with camphor. Of the success of this remedy we can say nothing; but the unguentum saturninum added to the mercury, instead of the camphor, is singularly useful. Dr. Rowley prefers the smoaking spirit of nitre as a caustic, and thinks it may be more successfully confined in its influence than any other corrosive. Our author's 'penetrating mercurial lotion,' whose use is very extensive, in almost all instances of obstruction, consists of a grain of corrosive sublimate to eight ounces of water.

We shall now give a more particular account of Dr. Rowley's doctrine, in two or three of the most important diseases of the eye. The first is the chemosis, the violent* acute ophthalmia. After describing the various symptoms, he proceeds to enumerate the different species, and we shall select them as a proof of what we have observed, that Dr. Rowley multiplies the number unreasonably, though the fault is more conspicuous in some other parts of the volume.

'1. *Chemosis vasculosa*; in which the vessels only are very much distended.

'2. *Chemosis vesiculosa*; in which the arteries are not only much distended, but the cellular structure composing the conjunctiva is distended, and the cells themselves filled, in the form of thousands of minute miliary vesicles, with a red sanguineous fluid; and sometimes the whole membrane appears a cake of blood, as though all the cells were ruptured, and the blood had run in a confused manner into their cavities.

'3. *Chemosis complicata*; in conjunction with all the former symptoms in a greater or less degree; the conjunctiva in the inner surface of the upper eyelid is very tumid, red, and inflamed, and sometimes the whole substance of the eyelid is violently affected.'

* The species styled by our author violenta, is that which arises from blows or wounds.

These are undoubtedly only different degrees, and no axiom is more common in logic than 'plus vel minus non mutat speciem.' But independent of these redundancies, there are numerous repetitions of the same complaint under different heads, and we have no hesitation in adding that of our author's one hundred and eighteen diseases, there are not in reality fifty species.

For the cure of this complaint, Dr. Rowley prescribes evacuations of every kind, not very different from the directions of others, except that he urges more strongly the propriety of bleeding from the jugular vein. A long train of remedies follow, as in Lieutaud's work, without distinction or discrimination. Nitre, sal prunella, and camphor, are on the same footing; and pediluvia are prescribed without limiting the heat or duration of the operation, expressly because they promote diaphoresis without increasing the quantity of fluids in the body. If our author's rigid abstinence is adhered to, they will certainly have the latter effect; and if too long continued, they will greatly increase the heat of the body and the pain of the eye. In the following directions, a good principle is carried much too far.

'*Abstinence.* The most rigid abstinence should be instituted from the commencement to the termination of the disease.

'A small piece of bread and a roasted apple, or currant jelly, or sweet orange, or any fruits not flatulent, should be the whole of the food, and these should be taken very sparingly.

'All meats, and liquors of every sort, should be abstained from, except solutions of nitre, &c.

'The motion of the muscles of the inferior maxilla by friction may increase the inflammation, irritate, cause pain, and retard the cure; therefore rest and great taciturnity should be earnestly recommended.'

Calomel is recommended, and two hours afterwards a laxative draught. We should have thought calomel injurious if it had not been managed in this way, so as to render it wholly insignificant. Scarifications are advised only in the greatest emergencies, while the other remedies are operating. We have found them really useful, and never attended with any disagreeable symptoms. Warm vapours of equal parts of vinegar and water, or of water with half a drachm of smothering spirit of salt added, are, we think, remedies of a dangerous nature.

There is a period of the disease which we should have expected that a practitioner would have noticed, viz. that which succeeds to the violent pain when some degree of pain and much redness continue without fever. Dr. Rowley indeed, after
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having filled many pages with this account, proceeds to ophthalmia acuta & chronica; but if by the last he means the state we have mentioned, his directions are inadequate and unsatisfactory. In the interval, when the pain has in some measure ceased, and the inflammation continues, is the time for employing the tinctura thebaica dropped into the eye; a remedy, though useful and important, not once mentioned by our author.

The other species of ophthalmia are denominated from their cause, and really belong to the different diseases, of which the inflammation is a symptom or an effect. The scrophulous ophthalmia he cures with the mineral alteratives; and with more chemical accuracy uses in this, and a few other formulæ, the James' powder joined to the calomel. In this part, the contradiction formerly mentioned occurs, and the reader would scarcely suppose that the two paragraphs we shall transcribe follow each other; they are not the only instances of inexcusable haste.

‘ Ointments with mercury alone, or *mercury given internally without antimonial sulphur*; rather augment than relieve scrophulous and cancerous disorders.

‘ *Æthiops mineralis*, or cinnabar and nitre may be given with great advantage to scrophulous children. Externally the *lotio penetrans* is excellent as a resolvent with a little nitre, to the tumors.’

In our hands, salt water has been more successful than mercurial alteratives, though it often fails. The mercurial alteratives are to be continued for a year; but it rarely happens that scrophulous sores do not heal, or put on a more favourable appearance in the spring. The intermittent ophthalmia is, as our author remarks, a new disease. We fear, however, that his plan will not often cure it. Bark alone seldom succeeds, but fortunately the disease goes off spontaneously, and gives credit to remedies which they may not deserve.

Another disease is the opacity of the cornea, and we shall transcribe Dr. Rowley's experiments.

‘ To conceive clearly the nature of specks, or opacities of the cornea, when I formerly practised surgery, every opportunity was seized to investigate the real causes of these and other obscurities in vision, by anatomical examination after death.

‘ Anatomical injections of the most minute fluids, as ætherial oil of turpentine and vermilion; ichthyocolla dissolved in spiritus vini and carmine; and quicksilver alone, were the principal substances forced into the arterial system by injection.

‘ The injections passed to the opaque parts, but could not be forced through.

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‘ The injections sometimes could only be forced to the limbus of the cornea, particularly when the whole cornea was opaque.

‘ It appeared in some instances, that the opacity was occasioned only by a distension of vessels.

‘ In other cases there was evidently a coagulation of fluid, which on microscopical examination appeared to be an effusion of serum or concretioned lymph in the cellular structure of which all membranes are composed. This was only evident after maceration.’

The treatment consists of the application of the *lotio penetrans*, and the use of the antimoniated mercury; in recent cases, the application of the vapour of vinegar and water, or the fumes of cinnabar. There is nothing very new or mysterious in this. The *tinctura thebaica*, however, dropped into the eye will answer the same purpose.

The management of the *gutta serena*, our author has described very vaguely. In the cure, he first mentions the remedies usually prescribed, without distinguishing when either will be proper, or preferring any, except the mercurial and antimonial alteratives. Afterwards, when he considers those cases which arise from fixed causes, and are consequently incurable, he observes with great propriety, that, as it is almost impossible to know whether these exist, and no injury can be done by the continuance of medicine, for the blind cannot be made blinder, it is necessary to persevere in the most active remedies.

‘ The attempts should be made by the use of the *lotio penetrans* and friction, the *mercurius sublimatus corrosivus* with the *antimonium tartarizatum*, as recommended in the incipient cataract; calomel and James’s powder, or the *pulvis antimon.* of the new London Dispensatory; Plummer’s pill and nitre, and alterative powders composed of nitre and cinnabar, or *Æthiops mineral*, equal parts; lixivious or saponaceous remedies, with fumigations of *Æthiops mineral* or cinnabar received up the nostrils, or into the internal canthus of the eye; mercurial unguents with camphor may be applied on or above the eyebrows, where the supraorbital nerve enters, or in the directions of the *sagittal* or *lambdoidal sutures*; cuppings and scarifications may be used on those latter parts, and on the *processus jugulis*; bleedings in the jugular; evacuations, extreme dry diet, sweating by antimonials, so as not to excite nausea; or the long continued use of mineral alteratives, composed of *calomel* or *argentum vivum* and the *Kermes mineralis*, *sulphur auratum antimonii*, united by long trituration, and given in doses of from one to two grains three or four times a day in the form of pills, with solutions of nitre and volatile alkali, camphor, &c. after each dose.’

Dr. Rowley allows that, in this way, he has cured very few,
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We believe so, for internal medicines are of little importance, and the external ones scarcely reach the complaint. In short, there are but two methods in which a moderate proportion are cured; by active vomits, chiefly mercurial; or by drawing a stream of electrical fluid daily from the eye, with the assistance of the eye-glass, and needle, first invented, we believe, by Mr. Ferguson. One out of ten, if not inveterate cases, are greatly relieved by this treatment; six out of ten in some measure benefited.

Our author's distinctions of cataracts are, as usual, too minute. The distinction of the black cataract, which, by the way, is very uncommon, from the gutta serena, is of great importance. In the former there is some muddiness perceived, no reflection of the image before the eye, and a little light from the oblique rays. Dr. Rowley thinks the incipient cataract may be cured by medicines, and particularly by the lotio penetrans with mercurius dulcis and antimony; by evacuations, the dry diet, and cinnabarine fumigations.

Dr. Rowley in general prefers, or seems to prefer, the extraction of the lens. The mode in which he operates, may be easily understood by the following comparison.

‘ In the common manner, the patient is seated in a chair lower and opposite to the surgeon.

‘ The operator depends on the finger and thumb to keep the eyelids open, which I am certain is not so secure as the dilated speculum.

‘ The first incision is similar.

‘ Then a cystitonus, or a cystic knife, is passed through the wound of the cornea and pupil by other operators, which I performed with the cataract knife first introduced.

‘ The cornea being incised, the capsula of the lens, according to some, is not to be opened, but the *acus occulta*, or the concealed needle of Richter, is to be fixed into the middle of the lens, and by a gentle rotatory motion it is to be loosened, and with its capsula extracted; or Daviel's little curved spoon may be used for the same purpose.

‘ The cataract being extracted, some recommend the purification of the eye, and removal of fragments by Daviel's little spoon. This is next to impracticable, and I have never seen it necessary; for the wound of the cornea being in a depending part, if any fragments remain, they will, in general issue through the wound of the transparent cornea, when the patient is erect, and by gentle pressure of the upper part of the cornea.’

Afterwards, our author operated while the patient sat on the ground and laid his head back on a chair. The lens in that way did not escape till he chose to press it out, and the vitreous humour was never evacuated.

We have now given a sufficient specimen of our author's labours. If we cannot conclude with any very warm applause, we can at least recommend his diligence and industry. Much information is collected from different authors, and Dr. Rowley seems to have attended to the diseases of the eye with care. The observations, however, whether his own, or collected, are thrown together with little systematic knowledge: many repetitions occur from the laboured attempts to class, arrange, and seemingly to multiply the diseases of the eye, while the remedies are enumerated with little distinction. We cannot, therefore, on the whole, consider this work as greatly adding to the stock of our knowledge.

A Descriptive Account of the Island of Jamaica: with Remarks upon the Cultivation of the Sugar-Cane, throughout the different Seasons of the Year, and chiefly considered in a Picturesque Point of View. By William Beckford, Esq. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Egertons. 1790.

THE West India Islands must afford new and singular scenes to Europeans, scenes which, if not known to exist, might be censured as the luxuriant reveries of an uncontrolled imagination. They are, however, so familiarised by the numerous observers, who have often contemplated them, that, when we surveyed our author's warm colouring, we feared lest he might have experienced the fate of another Icarus. His waxen wings bore, however, the fiery trial, and he alights with safety from the heights where he supported himself with dignity. But the whole is not descriptive: much political information relating to the island, many judicious remarks on the management of the negroes, and their projected emancipation, occur. On the last subject we have had occasion to state our author's opinion, and we need not again recur to it. As this work consists of desultory descriptions, not particularly connected, we shall only give a very general account of it, interspersing a few specimens as we go on.

The introduction contains a general description of Jamaica, with those little local subjects of information, commonly found in an almanack, from whence this account is taken. The following passage is introductory to the more particular details.

' The first appearance of Jamaica presents one of the most grand and lively scenes that the creating hand of nature can possibly exhibit: mountains of an immense height seem to crush those that are below them; and these are adorned with a foliage as thick as vivid, and no less vivid than continual. The hills, from their

their summits to the very borders of the sea, are fringed with trees and shrubs of a beautiful shape, and undecaying verdure; and you perceive mills, works, and houses, peeping among their branches, or buried amidst their shades.

‘The sea is, in general, extremely smooth and brilliant; and before the breeze begins to ripple its glassy surface, is so remarkably transparent, that you can perceive (as if there were no intervening medium) the rocks and sands at a considerable depth; the weeds and coral that adorn the first, and the stars and other testaceous fishes that repose upon the last.

‘Every passing cloud affords some pleasing variation; and the glowing vapours of the atmosphere, when the sun arises or declines, and when the picturesque and fantastic clouds are reflected in its polished bosom, give an enchanting hue, and such as is only particular to the warmer climates, and which much resemble those saffron skies which so strongly mark the Campania of Rome, and the environs of Naples.’

That which we shall next transcribe is truly picturesque: it is almost poetical, and in no part deviates into burlesque.

‘The night was stillness itself; not a zephyr was awake, and not a sound was heard, except the howlings of the cur that bayed the moon, which now shone resplendent in her meridian, and showed the planets, and the stars, and the whole face of heaven, without a cloud: the toads, indeed, croaked out their noisy descant; but their hoarseness so peculiar to night, contributed their rural influence, and only seemed responsive basses to the enchanting trebles of the nightingales that swelled around. From an elevated piazza, and surrounded by distant mountains most romantically covered with wood, we looked down upon the beauties of the plain below, which represented an extensive lake, indented by apparent bays, hollowed ports, and level shores. A small archipelago of islands seemed set within its bosom, in which imagination designed, and with pleasure embodied, and gave to airy nothing, a local habitation and a name. A part of the surrounding scenery was buried in shade; a part less gloomy: the moonbeam darted here, and loitered there; while the mirror of the lake received its burst of light, and reflected all around its spreading rays. The fire-flies were seen to glitter amidst the shadows, to shoot electric meteors from their eyes, or coruscations from beneath their wings. In some places we could fancy that rivers meandered in their course to mix their streams with this silver expanse of imaginary waters; in others, we were lead to trace the winding path, to see the candle tremble from the cottage wicket, or listen to the clacking of the distant mill. Between the plane and the elevation from which this scene was observed (and a view
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something similar I have frequently seen represented in the clouds in the rainy seasons), there diminished from the sight a succession of hills: that nearest to the sight was dark; and the others progressively emerged from darkness into light. A more enchanting landscape in any region, or at any time of the day, I had not ever before seen, than the picturesque variety occasioned by the fogs in the representation of that I have now attempted to describe.'

In this manner our author proceeds, interspersing in a more humble style, the little episodes; an account of Mr. Robertson, a painter of abilities; a description of the plantain-tree, and the various soils in different parts of the island; disquisitions concerning the management of negroes, a Jamaica harvest, hunting and fishing scenes, pursuit of fugitive negroes; a description of the more remarkable animals, &c. Indeed many of these can scarcely be styled digressions, but various passages are strictly so, and of these we can scarcely find more than one that does not disagreeably and improperly break the narrative; the description of Italian views has so much merit as to require an exception. We ought not to omit remarking that the storms and hurricanes, in our author's hands, are truly sublime and terrible scenes.

The principal subject, after picturesque description, is the cultivation of the sugar-cane; and this, like the negro-houses, starts up unexpectedly, in all the devious wanderings of our author's fancy. The dangers that may attend the crop, from enemies and accidents of different kinds, are displayed with a feeling anxiety, the result probably of experience, perhaps of misfortune; and the triumph of a successful harvest is in an equal degree animated. Of the faults, the most conspicuous are the frequent digressions, too great refinement, we had almost said the affectation of sensibility, and numerous repetitions. The merits may be summed up almost in a word: it is a pleasing, an animated, and often an instructive work. It describes uncommon scenes in bold glowing language, and teaches the English farmer an useful lesson—that in a steady, regular, progressive course, riches, independence, and happiness are best obtained. As we have given two specimens of our author's descriptive powers, we shall conclude with one of his political enquiries.

‘It has been contended, that the population of our islands may be preserved without the introduction of foreign slaves; and one or two properties have been quoted as a corroboration of this fact: but what is the partial adduction of three or four to the calculation of one thousand and sixty-one sugar-estates, which are now settled in Jamaica alone?’

Some singular circumstances of soil or situation, and other corresponding causes, might have favoured this increase; that part of the country might not have been visited by hurricanes and droughts, and their constant attendants, famine and disease; the land might not have required much cultivation and labour, and might have been incapable of making much produce, and hence of calling forth much exertion: so that one exception, that begets hypothesis, is suffered to stand as a datum to substantiate general facts.

The accidents alone to which the negroes are subject, and the good in particular more than the worthless, would be a melancholy bar to the population of the country; the numbers that are annually killed by lightning, by the fall of trees, by the sudden rise and rapidity of the torrents, and by the numberless contingencies to which their situations and exposure at all seasons of the year must make them subject, would influence in a considerable manner their decrease; but when the more heavy calamities of the island are taken into the description, I should hope that some compassion would be felt for the planter as well as for the slave, as, by the preservation or the loss of the latter, the former can be said to stand or fall.

The negroes that were supposed to perish in the different storms that happened in Jamaica between the years 1780 and 1787 and by the consequences that fatally ensued, were estimated at 15,000 (the whole amount in the island being 255,700); and the disorders occasioned thereby, the stagnation of population in consequence of inanition, the absolute want that brought some, and the despondency that hurried others, to the grave, together with the additional labour that fell upon the strong in consequence of the inability of the weak, might be calculated, without exaggeration, at several thousands more.

A Journey through Spain in the Years 1786 and 1787; with particular Attention to the Agriculture, Manufactures, Commerce, Population, Taxes, and Revenue of that Country; and Remarks in passing through a Part of France. By Joseph Townsend, A. M. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Dilly. 1791.

THE last traveller, whom we followed in this very interesting route, was recommended by many opportunities of information during a residence of eighteen years; but we were compelled to remark (vol. LXX. p. 14), that, from the evident bias which he felt, his almost professed design of conciliating the inhabitants on each side of the Pyrenees, his remarks must be received with caution and reserve. Our present traveller has neither resided so long in the kingdom, nor had the advantages of the chevalier de Bourgoanne, but he seems to

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have observed with attention, and described with accuracy what he saw. His opportunities of acquiring knowledge also seem to be neither few nor contemptible; but these are of less consequence when we remark, that the most important part of his work, in our opinion, is what relates to the natural history of the country, to the manners, the instruments employed in agriculture and mechanics. As we had occasion to point out some inaccuracies in the travels of the chevalier de Bourgoanne, we may at present observe, that Mr. Townsend seems to have given, in these instances, more correct accounts. In a future Number, for we fear it will not be in our power to examine the whole work in this article, we may point out where he differs from his predecessor, in the various parts of the Spanish political economy.

After some useful information, respecting the most convenient method of travelling through Spain, Mr. Townsend gives some observations which occurred in his passage through France. The country between Calais and Paris is said to be sand or gypsum, commonly styled plaster of Paris, excepting that it is in some parts, as in Picardy, a harder chalk, or, from Bologne to Amiens, sand, or the various degrees of mixture of sand and clay. In Paris, our author describes the different assemblies of literati to which he was introduced, and the various cabinets which he saw. His critical remarks, however, relate to his favourite study mineralogy, and his accounts of the different cabinets will appear very interesting to the lovers of that science. Mount Montmartre has been laid open to the depth of 140 feet, and sixteen strata are enumerated, generally consisting of argillaceous and calcareous substances (including gypsum) alternately. The strata are horizontal. The manner of bleaching, described in this volume, is now, we believe, generally practised in this kingdom, and has probably been introduced since the beginning of the year 1786, the period of our author's travels.

After leaving Paris, the author finds himself still in the sandy country, which stretches across from Diepe, by Rouen and Orleans to Bourges: chalk, freestone, and limestone succeed; and, after passing Auxerre, Mr. Townsend thinks the country has not yet recovered the devastation occasioned by the flood which covered it, and produced the calcareous superstratum. At Rouvray he met with granite; losing it for a time at Chalon, he found it again in the neighbourhood of Lyons. Lyons and its manufactures are described at some length; but its trade is declining, and the enfeebled constitutions of the weavers, from a sedentary life, hard work, and scanty fare, scarcely last out three generations. Mr. Towns-

end proceeds, by means of the water-diligence, through a limestone country, to Pont Esprit, and from thence by land to Montpellier, where the exuviae of marine animals are still found in the calcareous depositions from water. The following general remarks deserve great attention.

‘ The whole revenue being twenty-five millions sterling, each person pays twenty shillings annually to the state for its protection. If we reckon the revenue of England at fifteen millions, and the population at seven and a half, then each person will pay forty shillings. The people in France, it is true, have paid less in proportion to their numbers than the English, yet they have suffered more than in the same proportion from the tyranny, vexations, and oppressions of the farmers-general, to whom they have been often sold.

‘ The price of labour, taking the average of France, may be considered as two and twenty sols, or eleven pence per day for men, and ten sols for women, employed in manufactures; yet a good weaver, working eighteen hours a day, will earn three livres ten sols for himself and boy; shearmen will get two livres a day; spinning women four livres a month, and their board, deducting holydays; carpenters and masons, twenty-four sols, and two meals a day. In husbandry, the men get in winter from ten to fourteen sols a day, with a soup at noon; but in summer, from twenty to twenty-six sols, and two meals a day. The women have half as much.’

Our author speaks with great pleasure of Montpellier, as a literary, or rather, perhaps, as a scientific residence, though the practice of physic, in the provinces of France, as well as in Spain, is said to be imperfectly understood. At Narbonne he admires the honey, which he says is beautifully white, and of a delicious flavour, the simplicity and advantage of the hydraulic machine, which, raising the water from a little stream, is of more use to the inhabitants, ‘ than if its sands were of gold,’ and the great address of the inhabitants at the foot of the Pyrenees, in cultivating the rock by additional mould. The Pyrenees consist of schist, a slaty rock, and its most useful ornaments are the ilex and the cork-tree.

Mr. Townsend, as the reader may have remarked, has kept near the sea, and enters Spain on the eastern side. The first province that he visits therefore is Catalonia. The first village is Junquera, from whence the traveller proceeds to Figueras, Gerone, and Barcelona. From Barcelona he keeps to the north of the Ebro, which he crosses at Saragossa, and proceeds south-west to Daroca, Alcala, and Madrid. From Madrid our author makes an excursion to Aranjuez and Toledo; and

again proceeds from the capital to Valladolid, Leon, Oviedo, and the northern extremity of Asturias, Aviles, on the shore of the Bay of Biscay. After giving a pretty full account of Asturias, he returns to Madrid in a southern direction, visiting Salamanca, from thence, bending a little easterly, he goes to Segovia and St. Ildephonso, and to the capital by the way of the Escorial.

In the next excursion he proceeds southerly, through the Sierra Morena to Seville and to Cadiz: from Cadiz by sea to Malaga, on the coast of the Mediterranean, and from thence westerly to Alicant. From Alicant he returns almost along the coast of Barcelona. If our readers follow this description, with a good map before them, (a defect, by the way, which we greatly regret in these volumes) they will perceive that Mr. Townsend has travelled through the most interesting parts of the kingdom, and, in every remarkable spot he rests to give a description of the country, its appearance, agriculture, manufactures, and customs. On the whole, we think these volumes very interesting, and our author appears to be a very judicious well-informed traveller. We must, however, follow his steps, and give our readers some specimen of the instruction they may reap from the work.

The vast fortification erecting at Figueras leads Mr. Townsend to some very just remarks on the folly of every attempt of this kind, which is, at best, enormously expensive, with difficulty defended, and may be ultimately injurious. We should not have particularly pointed out these observations, if it were not, we fear, still necessary to keep up a steady opposition to similar attempts in this kingdom.

‘ All through Catalonia you admire at every step the industry of the inhabitants, who, working early and late, give fertility to a soil which naturally, except for vines, is most unproductive; but when you come to Mataro, you are perfectly enchanted; the farms are so many gardens, divided every where into beds of about four feet wide, with a channel for the passage of the water to each bed. Every farm has its Noria, a species of chain pump, which, from its extreme simplicity, seems to have been the invention of the most remote antiquity. By means of this machine, they every morning draw a sufficient quantity of water from the well for the service of the day, and in the evening distribute it to every quarter, according to the nature of their crops. The reservoirs into which they raise the water are about twenty, thirty, or even forty feet square, and three feet high above the surface of the ground, with a stone cope on the wall, declining to the water, for the women to wash and beat their clothes upon. The soil is so light, being nothing but sand from the decomposition of the granite, that

that they plough with two oxen or one horse, or even with a mule; yet, by the assistance of the water, it is made fertile, and produces on the same spot of ground corn, wine, oranges and olives.'

The description of the pageant representing the last sufferings of our Saviour, exhibited at Barcelona on the 12th of April, is very entertaining. The various riches which adorn the churches are, in our author's opinion, the gift of devotees subsequent to the discovery of America; and he frequently stops to remark, how greatly the kingdom might be improved, if only a small proportion of these were employed in public works. At present fruitful spots are uncultivated, as the carriage of their produce would exceed the value, and Spain can never prosper unless the roads are secured, amended, and water-carriage rendered easy by means of canals. In their present attempts, by aiming at perfection and magnificence, they expend vast treasures in executing small undertakings, while the royal manufactories, as our author fully proves, must be carried on at a certain loss, which in private hands would contribute to enrich the kingdom. The great academies for drawing, sculpture, &c. established in different parts of Spain, combine magnificence with utility. They extend knowledge, taste, and execution; but, to render agriculture respectable, and to improve it, the noblemen should sometimes reside on their estates; to increase the prosperity of commerce and manufactures, the princely fortunes of the lords should be converted into those channels. Mr. Townsend has demonstrated that, without such changes, Spain can scarcely rise above her present state; and, to this we may add, that activity and spirit should be excited, and industry become respectable. The alms of the clergy and the hospicios represent the whole, and a nation of idle beggars is perpetuated and increased, by the funds allotted by benevolence to unavoidable poverty and real misery.

In this seeming digression, we have been still progressive, and copied from Mr. Townsend's outline of the political features of this kingdom. But before we quit Barcelona, we must transcribe from our author the account of the hospital in that city. The Spanish hospitals have the credit of being the cleanest and best regulated of any in Europe.

'No hospital that I have seen upon the continent is so well administered as the general hospital of this city. It is peculiar in its attention to convalescents, for whom a separate habitation is provided, that after they are dismissed from the sick wards as cured of their diseases, they may have time to recruit their strength, before they are turned out to endure their accustomed hardships,

and to get their bread by labour. Nothing can be more useful, nothing more humane, than this appendage. The numbers they received into this hospital were, in the year 1785, nine thousand two hundred and ninety-nine; and in 1786, six thousand four hundred and eighty-eight. In the former year they buried eight hundred and fifty-four; in the latter, nine hundred and twenty-six; which, upon the average, is nearly a ninth of those who enter; but then it must be considered, that many are put into public hospitals merely to save the expence of funerals.

‘ With this hospital is united, under the same administration, an establishment for foundlings, sufficiently capacious for the city and its environs. The deserted children were five hundred and twenty-eight, on the average of the two last years, and of these two-thirds were buried; a proportion shocking to humanity, but the inevitable consequence of taking infants from the mother, and crowding them together in a city; more especially if, as in Barcelona, five children hang upon one nurse. It is much to be lamented, that they have not, like the French, recourse to the milk of goats; or, like the children in the Orphan hospital in Dublin, learnt to use sucking bottles.’

The population of Barcelona is said to exceed 111,000; in their manufactories they have fourteen Manchester cotton machines at work.

In the neighbourhood of Barcelona is the mountain of St. Jeronymo, of which the base is granite covered with schist, and, on the top, is calcareous rock; this, adds our author, it must be remembered, is the natural situation. Another mountain, in the same neighbourhood, is of a similar kind; and to the decomposition of schist, Mr. Townsend thinks, the most fertile kind of clay owes its origin, while to the decomposition of granite, the grits are attributed. The most fertile clay that we know is derived from lava, which, however, is only the fused schist; but the second opinion is more doubtful, as grits, so far as we have been able to observe, are not common in granite countries. We allow that the sand of the granite is not fertile soil. Montjuich is a mountain of grit, or, in our author's opinion, of decomposed granite, and must have been once covered by the sea. The description of the norias, a kind of chain-pump, and the observations on different kinds of pumps, are very judicious; but we must leave Catalonia by giving some account of the inhabitants,

‘ The rigid parsimony of Catalans appears in their scanty provision for the day. When they carry their little basket to the market, together with their beef and garden stuff, they bring home two deniers worth of charcoal. This circumstance is so character-

characteristic, that when they would reproach the rich miser for his penury, they say that notwithstanding his opulence he still continues to send to market for dos dineros de Carbon. Twelve deniers make a penny.

• Their dress is singular. They have red night-caps over a black net which receives the air, and hangs low down upon their backs. Their waistcoat or short jacket, with silver buttons, is close, and bound with a long silk sash, passing many times round their loins, and then tucked in.

• In Spain, Italy and Africa, all the inhabitants bind themselves up with sashes, as a preventative of ruptures. Certain it is that these are very common; but when we consider that the nations which use no sashes are not much subject to ruptures, we may perhaps be led to attribute this accident to relaxation, which must be promoted by the very precaution which they have adopted to prevent it.

• Their breeches are commonly black velvet; they have seldom any stockings, and sandals supply the place of shoes.

• No people upon earth are more patient of fatigue, or, travelling on foot, can outstrip them. Their common journey is forty miles, but upon occasion they will run threescore. For this reason they make good guides and muleteers; being employed as such all over Spain, and trusted without reserve on account of their integrity.

In the journey to Madrid, they pass the famous mountain Montserrat, already well known, from the descriptions of Mr. Bowles and Mr. Thicknesse. This immense mountain is calcareous, with some spots of grit, and, what is more surprising, a stupendous mountain, in the neighbourhood, is wholly salt, which, in this dry air, does not waste, but admits of being formed into snuff-boxes, &c. After passing Ingualada, he finds schist, calcareous earth, limestone covered with white earth and clay, and at last gypsum alone. In this progress he lost, first the vine, then the olive and the ilex, till nothing remained but the quercus coccifera and the oak. It is a remark of our author, that the chalk is always a barren soil; and the gypsum rarely fertile, while the limestone is generally favourable to vegetation. To account for these facts is not easy, except on the principle that chalk suffers the water to percolate too freely, and contains no material portion of the ingredients of vegetable earth. The road from Saragossa to Madrid affords few objects for remark, except the calcareous strata, variegated with schist or gypsum; the monumental crosses to remind the traveller that the banditti have once, and may, perhaps, still frequent the spot, deserted castles of the nobility, with the poverty and wretchedness of the inhabitants.

Capitals have been frequently described, and generally well, nor shall we stay, with our author, to visit the saltpetre works, the cabinets of natural history, the manufacture of the Gobelins, or even the paintings of the palaces. It is in the provinces that we meet with novelty and interest; from those whom the polish of fashion has not assimilated, or refinement corrupted: besides, that almost all the objects mentioned have been noticed by other travellers. We shall therefore again follow our author to Toledo.

Toledo is an interesting scene to the fencer, and he will rejoice to be told that the steel manufactures are reviving. It is a more important scene to the student of political œconomy. The alcazar is converted into an hospicio; but the church and the archbishop, who, with views the most benevolent and humane, supply the defects and administer to the poverty of the artist, have by the same means raised the price of the labour, and contributed to the ruin of the trade. It may be converted also into a general proposition, whether it respects charitable or manufacturing institutions, that a number together are not maintained and supported in the ratio of what supports one. Reason revolts against this proposition, but experience confirms it. 'For health, for profit, for comfort, for population,' adds our author, 'let every family occupy a separate cottage, and learn to live on the produce of its industry.' This unfortunate city is decaying: from 200,000 souls, it now scarcely retains 25,000. Monks, however, increase; and, like caterpillars, they seem to multiply in proportion to the weakness of the plant that feeds them.

From Toledo, as we have said, Mr. Townsend returns to Aranjuez, and, as he is now in the center of the kingdom, he finds decomposed granite less contaminated by the watery depositions. Aranjuez contains about 10,000 souls, but these are the followers of the court. At other times it is comparatively deserted. The count Florida Blanca is described advantageously. His appearance marks discrimination and discernment: his manners are affable and attentive. The manners of the Spanish court; the peculiarities of the king; the fandango, which our author thinks was taught them by the Moors; the bull-feasts, &c. are sufficiently well known.

In the next excursion to Asturias, Mr. Townsend, with his companion, passed over a barren country of decomposed granite to Valladolid, which he describes with greater accuracy than M. de Bourgoanne. In the neighbourhood is limestone, and the norias render the country round almost a garden.

'At present the poor are numerous, fed by the convents, and manifest the wretchedness of this once flourishing metropolis.

'It

‘ It is fallen indeed, but on the projected canal we may evidently read, *resurgam*. This undertaking, once regarded like the wild projects of the giants, will, in all probability, and at no distant period, be accomplished, provided Spain has the wisdom not to be engaged in war.

‘ The canal begins at Segovia, sixteen leagues north of Madrid, and is separated from the southern canal by the chain of mountains which we passed at Guadarama. From Segovia, quitting the Eresma, it crosses the Pisuerga, near Valladolid, at the junction of that river with the Duero, then leaving Palencia, with the Carrion to the right, till it has crossed that river below Herrera, it approaches once more the Pisuerga, and near Herrera, twelve leagues from Reinosa, receiving water from that river in its course, it arrives at Golmir, from whence, in less than a quarter of a league, to Reinosa, there is a fall of a thousand Spanish feet. At Reinosa is the communication with the canal of Arragon, which unites the Mediterranean to the Bay of Biscay; and from Reinosa to the Suanzes, which is three leagues, there is a fall of three thousand feet.

‘ Above Palencia is a branch going westward, through Beceril de Campos, Rio Seco, and Benevente, to Zamora, making this canal of Castille, in its whole extent, one hundred and forty leagues.’

It is already completed from Reinosa to Rio Seco, 88 miles, at the rate of 4,318 pounds per mile, including the adventitious expences of locks, &c. It is 9 feet deep, 20 wide at the bottom, and 56 at top. When completed, in workmanship and utility, it will be greatly superior to every other undertaking of the same kind.

Leon is supported almost wholly by the church. Out of 6170 souls, there are 420 priests, 10 convents, a few hermitages, some hospitals, and an hospicio. The country around is bold and mountainous, consequently subject to the devastations of torrents, which alarm the husbandman, and prove a fertile source of information to the naturalist. The granite begins soon to be covered with schist, and afterwards vast mountains of marble appear. The effects of the limestone are also conspicuous; for, in every valley, a pleasant verdure, and numerous families climbing up the mountain as their numbers increase, show the utility of the substratum.

Oviedo, the capital of Asturias, is next described; and we here find the fatal effects of that benevolence, which was suggested by humanity, and supposed to be directed to the wisest purposes. It now increases the number of beggars, lessens the excitement to industry, and takes from the stock of national wealth.

wealth. The neighbourhood of Oviedo is unhealthy. The mal de rosa is the endemic disease. It is a scorbutic eruption, attacking the back of the hands, the neck, the insteps, and the sternum; ending in a scurf. If neglected it brings on vertigo, delirium, lassitude, chillness, scrophula, melancholy, and madness. Another disease is the true elephantiasis, with which the mal de rosa seems very nearly connected. It is attributed to humidity, to flatulent food, and unfermented bread; but the causes of endemic diseases are not easily discovered, or avoided.

In this province they extract the petroleum from coal; but the coal is offensive, because, as our author observes, the inflammable matter is confined by limestone. If, in sinking lower, they find it in a schist, it is probable that the smell will be less offensive. Mr. Townsend next goes to the feria (a modern fair), at Aviles, on the sea-coast. The roads are elaborated with all the anxious care of the Spaniards, who are not contented with having them wide, overcome obstacles at a vast expence to render them strait; and, having learnt that they should be arched, build walls to serve on each side as abbuttments. Our author describes the feria, a church-feast, the manners of the Asturians, and their diseases, with great accuracy. On the latter subject he speaks so learnedly, that we should almost have suspected that he had made medicine his peculiar study. Asturias, he says, greatly resembles England in its appearance, its products, and in its climate; but their cyder, from mismanagement chiefly, is a very indifferent liquor. Amber and jet are found in this province. The agriculture of Asturias, as well as of the other parts of Spain, are also described; but, as we find it impossible to follow Mr. Townsend closely, we must, for these particulars, and for the various prices of provisions, refer to the work.

In the return to the Escorial, our author describes the management of the flocks, which we have already had occasion to notice. We meet with nothing particularly deserving our attention in this place till we arrive with our traveller at Salamanca, once a famous university; but the number of students has now decreased from 16000 to less than 2000. The college of the Jesuits is at present divided, and one half is appropriated to the Irish college, which contains 60 students, who, when dismissed, are replaced by others. Their system of philosophy, including logic, metaphysics, mathematics, physics, and ethics, is that of Jacquier: in theology they follow P. Collet. They rise every morning at half after four, and their lectures are rather examinations on different questions, previously proposed, than formal instructions. They have no
vacations.

vacations. The library is said to be tolerably well furnished with modern books, but to contain chiefly scholastic divinity. The cathedral, and particularly the sculpture, deserve great attention. The number of houses amounts to 3000; but the proportion of churches is very large. Avila too, possessing only one-sixth of its former inhabitants, contains the number of convents undiminished.

St. Ildephonso and the Escorial are at a very short distance from each other, and the situation of the former is defended by our author on the principle which directed the choice of the aspect. It faces the north, and was designed by Philip, as a retreat from the great heats of summer and autumn. These palaces have been often described.

Segovia is in their neighbourhood, and can yet boast of its aqueduct, its cathedral, and the alcazar; but the manufacture of cloth is greatly diminished. In 1612 were made in this town 25500 pieces, which contained 44625 quintals of wool, and employed 34189 persons; but at present they make only about 4000 pieces, and these are imperfect from uneven threads, and from the grease not being thoroughly cleaned, which renders the colour less permanent and equable. In 1525, Segovia contained 5000 families; but at this time they do not surpass 2000, though, when the new canal is finished, and the communication opened with the Bay of Biscay, commerce and population will probably revive.

Our traveller now returns to Madrid; and, as the considerations which immediately follow are chiefly political, we shall defer the consideration of what remains for the present.

(To be continued.)

A Treatise on the Dropsy of the Brain, illustrated by a Variety of Cases. To which are added, Observations on the Use and Effects of the Digitalis Purpurea in Dropsies. By Charles William Quin, M. D. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Murray. 1790.

IT is undoubtedly proper, in a nosological view, to bring this disease from the class of dropsies to the apoplexy; for symptoms of internal dropsy are not always observed, and those of apoplexy are the most important and striking. The only danger to be apprehended is, that practitioners who sometimes prescribe for a name, may be led to employ large and copious bleedings for this species, as well as for the sanguine apoplexies.

It is justly observed, that the extensive ravages of this disease have been overlooked, and its fatal effects attributed to many other causes. It is difficult at all times to distinguish it, and the practitioner must often trust to the sagacity acquired only by frequent, perhaps fatal experience, for the diagnosis. The peculiar look, the previous causes, the sudden temporary

screams, and obstinate constipation, are more commonly useful in discerning it, than the usual boasted pathognomonic. Our author's description is a very accurate one, but he does not seem to have observed the obstinate costiveness, so often as it has occurred to our notice : he mentions it as frequent ; we have almost seen it inseparable.

In some instances of the disease, the water in the brain is in small quantities, and the pressure on its medullary substance owing to distended vessels. This is a case which comes nearer to other species of apoplexy, and we suspect it is not so strongly marked as some other kinds of more pure hydrocephalus. But there are other circumstances which seem not to have occurred to Dr. Quin. A metastasis of dropical swellings is not a frequent event : but it is sometimes observed, and we have seen hydrocephalus from this cause, as well as from the advancing progress of general dropsy. Convulsions also we have seen, the first symptom in habits generally dropical, though there may be some doubt whether convulsions from other causes may not have assisted the effusion. That these facts may not have been noticed, or overlooked, is probable, from its appearing to be the author's chief object to establish the apoplexia hydrocephalica on a very different foundation.

‘ But when the appearances, progress, and duration of apoplexia hydrocephalica are candidly considered ; when it is recollected, that the patients attacked by it, are usually of very lively intellects, and remarkably healthy constitutions ; such in short as are the most remote from any degree of cachexy ; a suspicion will necessarily arise, that its causes are of a very different nature from those of dropsy, and much more closely allied to the causes of acute diseases.—That this is really the case, I shall hereafter endeavour to prove, by deductions from an extensive series of facts, which (as I apprehend) amount to a demonstration, that the disease in question, always owes its origin to a morbid accumulation of blood in the vessels of the brain, sometimes proceeding to a degree of inflammation, and generally (but not always), producing an extravasation of watery fluid before death.

‘ In the first place it is to be observed, that at the period of the disease, wherein the head-ach is most acute, every symptom of fever, arising from an increased action of the vascular system, is evident ; secondly, the majority of patients who are attacked by it exhibit on inspection, strong appearances of plethora in the superficial vessels of the head ; and in some instances they have been subject to bleedings at the nose previous to the attack : vid. case 16 in the Appendix, and Whytt's Observations on Dropsy in the Brain.—These perhaps would be deemed but weak proofs of my assertion,

assertion, if no others could be adduced in support of it; but when they are strongly corroborated by arguments, deduced from the phenomena which have presented themselves in dead bodies;—the theory, it is presumed, will no longer appear to be a matter of speculation.'

The dissections and our own observations undoubtedly corroborate this opinion; but we wish to remark, that hydrocephalus, independent of every appearance of cachexy, is sometimes more decidedly dropical. This might perhaps lead us to establish two varieties of the species, which it is of more importance to distinguish, as it would greatly influence the practice.

The reason why inflammation or a fulness of the vessels should have a different effect at this time, than in a more advanced period, we shall add in our author's own words:

'It seems highly probable, that the brain of children is much less sensible to the effects of stimuli or pressure, than it afterwards becomes at a more advanced age.—There can be no doubt but that this is the case at the time of birth; for the violent compression which the brain undergoes with impunity at that time, (even so great as totally to change the form of it,) is such, as must be immediately fatal if applied to the brain of a grown person, for this reason perhaps, as well as the want of firm connection between the bones of the cranium in children, which it is well known frequently subsists for some years after birth, the progress of disease arising from a morbid accumulation of blood, is in infants gradual, and the stimulus less injurious; in adults the effects are instantaneous, and the disease more immediately fatal.'

In the practical part, our author does not greatly add to our knowledge. Mercury in his hands has not been eminently successful, and he seems to think that it acts by stimulating the absorbents. In the cases mentioned of its success, the affectionate attention of the parents, for the physicians were the parents, might have led them, he supposes, to discover the disease sooner, and to apply the medicine more early. In our hands it seems to have had decidedly good effects, but to have been employed too late. A blister over the head is the most promising remedy, and our author recommends, apparently in consequence of his peculiar opinion of the *principle* of the disease, local bleedings from leeches and cupping-glasses. Diuretics he thinks of service, but trusts less to active drastic purgatives than their good effects seem to deserve. He remarks that they seem 'to diminish rather than excite the action of the vascular system;' but this is the language of theory: experience tells us that they excite the action of the lymphatics very powerfully

fully when there is any ferous effusion, and copiously diminish the accumulation of fluids in the head.—A large collection of curious and useful cases is subjoined.

Select Specimens in Natural History, collected in Travels to discover the Source of the Nile, in Egypt, Arabia, Abyssinia, and Nubia, an Appendix to the Travels of James Bruce, Esq.

(Concluded from p. 165.)

THE birds of Abyssinia are in many respects peculiar. The eagles and the vultures follow the armies, in numerous flights, to feast on the effects of the devastation which they occasion. War, in that country, is attended with unusual horrors, and as no superstitious fancy leads them to bury the bones of friends or enemies, so humanity and decorum seldom intrude their officious hints; or the measures they may for a moment suggest are soon buried in the fiercer passions of pursuit or revenge. The first kind of bird mentioned by Mr. Bruce is the eagle. It passes from Egypt to Ethiopia, when the salt springs retire, and feeding at first on insects, which they leave, soon finds food more suitable to its inclination. The fly brings numerous birds, who live on these peculiar insects, and the successive blossoms of the trees and shrubs, occasioned by different aspects, feed those whose peculiar food is derived from the vegetable kingdom. The migrating birds too find Abyssinia a convenient spot, since a short flight over the mountains reverses the seasons. The water birds are not frequent, or very peculiar: snipes are found; but Mr. Bruce never saw a woodcock. Swallows he has seen in their supposed migration. The owls are few, but of immense size and beauty. Pigeons are birds of passage, except one kind that lives in holes. The crows are black and white, but magpies, sparrows, and bats are unknown or unobserved.

The first bird mentioned is the golden eagle, the largest bird that flies, and a formidable antagonist to contend with. From wing to wing, the bird described in this volume, was eight feet four inches; from the tip of his tail to the point of his beak, four feet seven inches; the middle claw was two inches and a half long, the legs short and strong. He walked up to the meat while dressing, and seized a part of it which was undressed, and seemed to wish for what was boiling. He put his claw into the water, but disliked the pain, though he soon afterwards returned to the pot, when he was shot dead with a rifle ball.

‘ Upon laying hold of his monstrous carcase, I was not a little surprised

surprised at seeing my hands covered and tinged with yellow powder or dust. Upon turning him upon his belly, and examining the feathers of his back, they produced a brown dust, the colour of the feathers there. This dust was not in small quantities, for, upon striking his breast, the yellow powder flew in fully greater quantity than from a hair-dresser's powder puff. The feathers of the belly and breast, which were of a gold colour, did not appear to have any thing extraordinary in their formation, but the large feathers in the shoulders and wings seemed apparently to be fine tubes, which upon pressure scattered this dust upon the finer part of the feather, but this was brown, the colour of the feathers of the back. Upon the side of the wing, the ribs, or hard part of the feather, seem to be bare as if worn, or, I rather think, were renewing themselves, having before failed in their function.

What is the reason of this extraordinary provision of nature is not in my power to determine. As it is an unusual one, it is probably meant for a defence against the climate in favour of those birds which live in this almost inaccessible heights of a country, doomed, even in its lower parts, to several months of excessive rain. The pigeons we saw upon Lamalmon, had not this dust in their feathers, nor had the quails; from which I guess these to be strangers, or birds of passage, that had no need of this provision, created for the wants of the indigenous, such as this eagle is, for he is unknown in the low country. That same day I shot a heron, in nothing different from ours, only that he was smaller, who had upon his breast and back a blue powder, in full as great quantity as that of the eagle.

The black eagle, from the figure and description, seems a more elegant pleasing bird, distinguished chiefly by the colour of his plumage. While following the army he was struck down by some other bird, for offences impossible to discover. He was about half the size of the golden eagle. The rachamah is a vulture of the lesser kind, and the name, in Mr. Bruce's opinion, is derived from recham, female love or attachment, and is properly appropriated, because this bird appears peculiarly attached to her young. It is so often mentioned as a female, that some whimsical authors have supposed there was no male of this kind; attributing the continuation of the species to the influence of the west wind. Moses, however, speaks of the male. Mr. Bruce thinks that the passage in Exodus (chap. xix. 4.) has a peculiar elegance, if read in this way, according to the original word, which is not nifr, eagle, but racamah, vulture. 'Say to the children of Israel, how I have punished the Egyptians, while I bore you up on the wings of the

the racama (of parental tenderness and affection), and brought you home to myself.'

The erkoom, called the alba gumba, from its grumbling note, is the Ethiopian crow. It walks, but does not hop. The bill is strong and long, and over it there is an epiphysis, called a horn. From his figure he appears to be a link between the crow and the cock.

The abbou Hannes (Father John, from its appearance on St. John's day, when the tropical rains begin to increase the waters of the Nile), is a bird resembling in appearance the grallæ. The colours white and black; the bill long and slightly arched. Our author supposes it to be the ibis, for all the dimensions and the colour, so far as it can be discovered, agree with the remains of the ibis discovered in the catacombs. It was once famous for destroying serpents; and, on this account, worshipped in Egypt; but serpents are no longer a nuisance, and the ibis is unknown. Mr. Bruce thinks it probable, that when Upper Egypt was inhabited, and the inhabitants extended even into the Lybian Desert, where the water was supplied annually by the Nile, conducted by canals into immense reservoirs, that vipers would be numerous, and of course the bird that destroyed them would be cherished. The habitations are now deserted, and the canals obstructed: the bird is no longer invited, but retires to the stagnant lakes in Ethiopia. This system, on the whole, is not improbable, though, if we may trust the descriptions of ancient authors, numerous objections will occur. The ibis, coloured and described by Buffon, our author tells us, resembles no bird of that country.

Honey is a common food in Ethiopia, and bees are numerous. The honey borrows its colour, and sometimes its flavour, from the neighbouring flowers, and the produce of one kind of bee, which builds in the earth, is black. The great enemy of the bees is the moroc, a bird that resembles a cuckoo. He feeds on them, but mischievously destroys many more than he eats. This account is probably true; but it is no reason that a bird, resembling the maroc, should not be found in the extremity of Africa, with different manners, as described by Sparrman. The frequent abuse of this able naturalist is no additional ornament to the Appendix.

The sheregrig is a beautiful bird, of the rollier tribe: it is the merops of Latin authors, and feeds equally on bees and flies. The wallia is a pigeon exceedingly fat, but, as an unclean bird, is not eaten by the Abyssinians.

The tsaltfalya is the zimb, the fly so often mentioned in this history, whose approach drives herds of cattle, shepherds, elephants,

phants, and rhinoceroses to the sandy desert, subjecting the shepherds to a duty in the passage, which it is impossible to elude. In the plate it is evidently a fly, without any great resemblance to the bee: the eye is conical, and three long hairs issue from the lips, like antennæ, which seem to occasion the buzzing noise. It bites, but has no sting.

‘ We cannot read the history of the plagues which God brought upon Pharaoh by the hands of Moses, without stopping a moment to consider a singularity, a very principal one, which attended this plague of the fly. It was not till this time, and by means of this insect, that God said, he would separate his people from the Egyptians. And it would seem, that then a law was given to them, that fixed the limits of their habitation. It is well known, as I have repeatedly said, that the land of Goshen or Geshen, the possession of the Israelites, was a land of pasture, which was not tilled or sown, because it was not overflowed by the Nile. But the land overflowed by the Nile was the black earth of the valley of Egypt, and it was here that God confined the flies; for he says, it shall be a sign of this separation of the people, which he had then made, that not one fly should be seen in the sand or pasture ground, the land of Goshen, and this kind of soil has ever since been the refuge of all cattle emigrating from the black earth to the lower part of Atbara. Isaiah, indeed, says, that the fly shall be in all the desert places, and consequently the sands; yet this was a particular dispensation of providence, to answer a special end, the desolation of Egypt, and was not a repeal of the general law, but a confirmation of it; it was an exception, for a particular purpose, and a limited time.’

Of the lizard there is only a single species: it is that commonly allowed not to be poisonous, and most frequently used in medicine; but it is disused at present, even in the countries where it was most warmly recommended. The following observations we would recommend to the authors who are fond of proving every thing by means of etymologies.

‘ The Arabian naturalists and physicians were better acquainted with the different species of this animal than any philosophers have been since, and in all probability than any strangers will ever be; they lived among them, and had an opportunity of discovering their manners and every detail of their private œconomy. Happy if succeeding the Greeks in these studies, they had not too frequently left observation to deviate into fable; the field, too, which these various species inhabit is a very extensive one, and comprehends all Asia and Africa, that is, a great portion of the old world, every part of which is, from various causes, more inaccessible at this day, than after the Arabian conquest. It is from the Ara-

bian books than that we are to study with attention the descriptions given of the animals of the country. But very great difficulties occur in the course of these disquisitions. The books that contain them are still extant, and all the animals likewise exist as before; but, unfortunately, the Hebrew, the Syriac, and the Arabic, are languages very ambiguous and equivocal, and are in terms too loose and vague for modern accuracy and precise description, and especially so in that of colours; besides, that unbounded liberty of transposition of letters, and syllables of words, in which the writers of those languages have indulged themselves, from notions of elegance, seem to require, not only a very skilful and attentive, but also a judicious and sober-minded reader, that does not run away with whimsical, or first conceptions, but weighs the character of his author, the common idioms of language which he uses, and opportunities of information that he had concerning the subjects upon which he wrote, in preference to others that may have treated the same, but who differ from them in facts.'

This little animal, el adda, is very timid: it burrows in the sand, and hides itself so fast, that it seems rather to have found than to have made a passage for its escape.

The horned viper, the cerasstes, is almost the only viper of this country. Its bite is poisonous, though, from the mechanism of the deleterious teeth, the poison cannot be pressed out of its bag, while the animal eats. No serpents are found in Upper Abyssinia, and few only in the lower country, the most remarkable of which is the boa. The host of serpents, mentioned by Lucan, is, in our author's opinion, the cerasstes or the boa, with different names according to their appearance or their qualities. The cerasstes, when it moves to catch its prey, approaches sideways, and, from that disadvantageous position, leaps on the object.

The general size of the cerasstes, from the extremity of its snout to the end of its tail, is from 13 to 14 inches. Its head is triangular, very flat, but higher near where it joins the neck than towards the nose. The length of its head, from the point of the nose to the joining of the neck is $\frac{1}{2}$ ths of an inch, and the breadth $\frac{1}{2}$ ths. Between its horns is $\frac{3}{4}$ ths. The opening of its mouth, or rictus oris $\frac{1}{2}$ ths. Its horns in length $\frac{3}{4}$ ths. Its large canine teeth something more than $\frac{2}{3}$ ths and $\frac{1}{2}$. Its neck at the joining of the head $\frac{1}{2}$ ths. The body where thickest $\frac{1}{2}$ ths. Its tail at the joining of the body $\frac{2}{3}$ ths and $\frac{1}{2}$. The tip of the tail $\frac{1}{2}$ th. The length of the tail one inch and $\frac{3}{4}$ ths. The aperture of the eye $\frac{1}{2}$ ths, but this varies apparently according to the impression of light.

The cerasites has sixteen small immoveable teeth, and in the upper jaw two canine teeth, hollow, crooked inward, and of a remarkable fine polish, white in colour, inclining to blueish. Near one fourth of the bottom is strongly fixed in the upper jaw, and folds back like a clasp knife, the point inclining inwards, and the greatest part of the tooth is covered with a green soft membrane, not drawn tight, but as it were wrinkled over it. Immediately above this is a slit along the back of the tooth, which ends nearly in the middle of it, where the tooth curves inwardly. From this aperture I apprehend that it sheds its poison, not from the point, where with the best glasses I never could perceive an aperture, so that the tooth is not a tube, but hollow only half way; the point being for making the incision, and by its pressure occasioning the venom in the bag at the bottom of the fang to rise in the tooth, and spill itself through the slit into the wound.

This serpent, in our author's opinion, is the aspic which Cleopatra procured to end her life, but an animal of this kind could scarcely be concealed among figs; and it is always described as a very small worm. That Mr. Bruce knew of no other venomous snake is not a reason why there should have been no more when Egypt was highly cultivated. Our author thinks also, that some persons can fascinate the snake and prevent it from injuring them. The facts he mentions are probably true, and the reason seems to be that the perspiration, natural to some people, or acquired by the use of particular medicines, is deleterious to the viper, and disarms it of its strength, which it soon recovers, when beyond the reach of its noxious influence.

The only fish which occurs in this volume is the binny, whose flavour renders it a delicacy, and it is from thirty-two to seventy pounds weight. It is caught in a curious way, for its luxurious appetite proves its destruction: the bait is dates with honey. The scales resemble silver spangles, and the fins are very numerous, to assist its escape from the crocodile, to whom it is probably in turn a luxurious banquet.

The hawkesbill turtle is next described, but little is added to our knowledge of it. The animal is found on the shores of the Red Sea, and it was formerly a considerable article of commerce. The shell was used for fineering or inlaying the most costly furniture. The eggs, Mr. Bruce tells us, so far as he could observe, were always laid in the sand.

The last subject is the pearl, a precious substance which abounds in the Indian Ocean. Our author describes the shells in which they are chiefly found; these are two species of mussel, and a kind of escallop. He mentions a fact, which we wonder he has not added to, as the consequences are well

known. It is the tortuous mishapen shells which chiefly yield the pearl, and the pearl oyster or mussel, by having its shell wounded, in a peculiar manner, may be made to produce pearl. The instrument by which the operation is performed is of a particular shape, but we do not apprehend that much depends on this circumstance. The nicety, if we are rightly informed, consists in the degree of the perforation. It should be carried almost through the shell, or if it penetrates the interior lamina, the puncture should be very minute. The pearl is, in fact, only an excrescence of the shell for repairing any loss of substance. Mr. Bruce has described all the different kinds of pearls with great accuracy; but they are so easily imitated, that they will probably soon lose their fancied value.

We shall now leave these celebrated volumes, which have claimed a great share of our attention, and whose varied merits and defects we have already had occasion to point out. The Appendix contains many valuable facts and beautiful plates. It contains also many personal reflections, which disgrace the author and his work. As an attentive observer, Mr. Bruce deserves great praise; and we may add, that, with so little scientific knowledge, we wonder he has done so much. But he is too fond of claiming a monopoly of merit, and of thinking that every one who differs from him must be in error. On subjects of this kind a variety of opinion will necessarily occur, and the most intelligent naturalist will always be most indulgent to the frailties of his brethren, for the varieties of nature he knows are endless, and her excentricities often inexplicable.

Sermons on several Occasions. By Henry Wolstenholme, M. A.
2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Evans. 1790.

THE author of these Sermons died in 1771, and left the volumes before us ready for the press. The discourses are of a popular miscellaneous nature, but they display much good sense and sound reasoning, as well as serious unaffected piety. It would not be very interesting to transcribe the subject of each discourse, as they would give a very faint idea of the merits of the sermon; and to follow each in their order, to examine what has been often said, though urged in different language, and with different force, is scarcely the object of a literary Journal. We meet with no new arguments; but we do not mean to add, that the sermons are on this account less useful. They will afford much valuable instruction in those family meetings, which, we trust, each well-disposed house-keeper, who has at heart the improvement of those entrusted

to his care in virtue and religion, is still in the custom of convening every Sunday evening. As a specimen of our author's style, we shall select the following observations: they form a part of an excellent sermon, on the hope of a future state, as revealed in the Gospel.

‘ Is the blood of the apostles and martyrs no testimony to the gospel of Christ? And is it impossible or improbable, that God should have made known his will to wretched man, lost and bewildered in a labyrinth of error, sin, and misery? God forbid! The great Roman orator, though assisted by no other light than that of reason, was of another opinion. And surely those incredulous people do believe many doctrines on weaker evidence than this. Why then should they with so much zeal endeavour to undermine the only foundation of our hopes; for other foundation can no man lay than that, which is laid, that is, Christ Jesus. If in this life only we had hope, we were of all creatures the most miserable. Spare then your fruitless pains, ye enlightened reasoners of the present age; your pretended compassion would be cruel, though all our hopes were but delusion. But this is a most irrational supposition; for the hope of a Christian is founded on the word, the promise, and the oath of God; confirmed by the glorious resurrection and ascension of our redeemer. It is an anchor of the soul, both sure and steadfast.

‘ But these modern infidels are very apt to boast of their morality, which, they doubt not, will entitle them to the favour of God both here and hereafter. But how do they know, that there is a future state of rewards and punishments? Was not life and immortality brought to light by the gospel? And will they believe one part of the gospel revealing a truth, they never could have known without it, and reject all the rest? Or will they rather reject the whole, and leave their own moral systems without sanction or support? But what their boasted morality would have been without a light borrowed either from the law, or the gospel? Look into the lives of the generality of the Heathen world and see. And would not these very unbelievers without this borrowed light have wrought (if indeed they do not still work) the will of the Gentiles? Would they not have walked in some or all their abominations, i. e. in lasciviousness, lusts, excess of wine, revelings, banquetings and probably, the most abominable idolatries? Every competent judge of such matters, it may reasonably be presumed, will be ready to answer in the affirmative.’

Sermons on the Divine Authority and various Use of the Holy Scriptures: preached in Little Wild-street, near Lincoln's-Inn-Fields, By Samuel Stennett, D. D. 8vo. 4s. Cadell, 1790.

THESE discourses, as Dr. Stennett very properly observes, are practical rather than polemical; and the reader must expect familiar popular explanations, instead of learned and recondite arguments. In general, they are judicious and useful sermons. In the three first Dr. Stennett endeavours to show what the Scriptures are, which may be said to be given by the inspiration of God, and what the meaning of inspiration is. In the fourth, the uses to which the Scriptures may be applied are pointed out; in the fifth and sixth, the objections of unbelievers are considered, and some deductions of a practical nature are stated: in the two last the duty, which Christians owe to the Holy Scriptures, is distinctly shewn.

The Scriptures, which are from God, are contained in the Old and New Testaments; and Dr. Stennett gives the most cogent arguments to show that, in their original communication, by their preservation, as well as their internal evidence, they deserve that description, and are consequently entitled to our respect. He is less exact when he says, that we must believe all the contents of these volumes to be from inspiration, except where the author particularly distinguishes, that he speaks from himself. There are many historical parts, where the source of the information is less explicitly pointed out, but which, it is evident, are drawn from written documents, and many passages where the authors seem immediately to have written what they have seen; nor is it for the honour of God, or the support of morality and virtue, to believe the less important objects of the historian always to proceed from inspiration. Where then are we to draw the line? Or must we wait for another revelation to distinguish what passages are really inspired? By no means: the line is easily drawn. Wherever an inspired writer speaks of things beyond his own knowledge, or beyond the reach of documents, we may safely believe that the Scripture is given by God. What relates to the attributes of God, his administration, his providence, the duties of religion and morality, we may believe to be from inspiration, from their intrinsic excellence, independent of the authority which cannot deceive.

Inspiration is explained nearly as Dr. Doddridge has done in his Family Expositor, and divided into superintendency, elevation, and suggestion, either as it relates to historical facts, doctrinal truths, and future events: we shall select, as a specimen of our author's sentiments, what he

observes respecting the degree of inspiration which good men may sometimes experience.

‘ There is a superintending influence exerted over the minds of good men, to secure them from such errors as may prove fatal to their everlasting interests. He who has assured us, that if any man will do his will, he shall know of the doctrine whether it be of God ; hath also assured us, that they who are of this description are his sheep, who know his voice, and know not that of strangers ; and that being in his Father’s hand, no one is able to pluck them thence. And as that anointing which all Christians have received from God, abideth in them, so it may from thence, I think, be concluded, that that truth which it teaches them, so far as it is essential to their Christian character, shall abide in them. And since Christ has assured us that God will give the Holy Spirit to them that ask him, I see no reason why a superintending influence exerted over the mind to guard it against errors of a dangerous tendency, may not be considered as included in that promise. And how happily is this consideration adapted to afford divine conscientious Christian !

‘ It is likewise by a divine influence, resembling in a degree the second species of inspiration we have been discoursing of, that the hearts of good men, are on some extraordinary occasions enlivened and elevated. While they are musing on the great truths of religion, the character of the Blessed God, the wonders of redemption, and the glories of the future state ; a flame of pure devotion is sometimes kindled in their breasts, and ascends to Heaven in the warmest aspirations of love, gratitude, and praise. Inspired, I had almost said, by a divine afflatus, they catch somewhat of the fire which burns incessantly in the bosoms of kindred spirits above. And upon what principle either of reason or religion the influence of the Holy Spirit is to be excluded from all concern in these exercises of exalted piety, I am at a loss to devise.

‘ As to the last idea of suggestion, I am sensible it has been miserably abused by many enthusiastic pretenders to religion. Yet it appears to me perfectly agreeable with sound reason and the dictates of Scripture, to admit that God is sometimes pleased to apply with peculiar energy the gracious promises of his word to the hearts of Christians, for the important purposes of animating them to duty, fortifying them against temptation, and reconciling them to affliction. Nor is there any danger of their mistakenly imputing this energy to the influence of the Holy Spirit, if the effect of such experience is, as we may be sure it always will be, to produce the genuine fruits of humility, holiness, and benevolence. Let us daily and fervently pray, that our minds may be guarded against error, our affections elevated to heaven, and our

hearts enlivened and comforted by that inspiration of the Almighty which giveth understanding.'

Our author's practical conclusions and his exhortations are correct and animated. They add to his credit as a preacher and a Christian. The two last sermons, in which Dr. Stennett urges his readers to study the Scriptures, and improve them to the best purposes, are particularly valuable.

The Anatomical Instructor; or, an Illustration of the most modern and most approved Methods of preparing and preserving the different Parts of the Human Body and Quadrupeds by Injection, &c. With a Variety of Copper Plates. By T. Pole, Member of the Corporation of Surgeons in London. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Dalton. 1790.

IT is said that when the czar, who truly deserved the title of Peter the Great, entered the Musæum of Ruysch, he ran to kiss what he thought was a living child of uncommon beauty. This was a most highly finished preparation; and the accounts, which Ruysch himself gives of his art, leads us to think that, since his time, it has declined. Those also, who remember the preparations of Albinus, speak in terms of the highest admiration of the brilliancy of the fluid, in which the different parts were preserved. Anatomists, however, within the last twenty years have greatly improved this part of their art. The fluids are better preserved; the transparency of the spirit is less contaminated, and the injections of different kinds are conveyed with a more minute division. In the dry preparations we may at least mention, among the improvements, the newer and more useful, as well as more brilliant varnishes. These improved processes are, we fear, sometimes concealed; but there are many anatomists, who with equal candour and ability add to the discoveries, and with a manly openness communicate their methods. That Mr. Pole, in the work before us, has described all the different methods which every anatomist has employed can scarcely be supposed. He has supplied us with a work which was greatly wanted; and with perspicuity and accuracy has explained many very useful methods of preparing different parts of the human body. If some methods have not yet reached him, we can truly say, that without his assistance so many different processes would have been unknown to the younger professors.

In a very rational and judicious introduction our author strongly recommends dissection, often repeated, in different states of the body after death, with a view of adding to the science

science of medicine more accurate accounts of the changes from disease. Those, who best know the alterations which time and the different seasons will make on the body, independent of disease, will be best able to discriminate the effects of disease. He gives, too, some very judicious directions to the young dissector, to enable him to avoid the inconveniences resulting from this offensive employment, and adds the best apology, though we own it an insufficient one, for the dissection of living animals.

The first part of the work relates to injections with coloured fluids. The author then treats of mercurial injections, preparations by maceration and distention, the method of articulating the skeleton, and modelling, in their order. Some miscellaneous remarks are added in the Appendix.

We mean not to hold out this work as a perfect one, when we recommend it highly. A few trifling errors we have marked, and the anatomist, more used to the art of preparing than we have been, will probably discover others. The younger artist will, however, find it of great value, as the different directions are given with remarkable perspicuity, and illustrated by plates: the accidents which may happen are also carefully pointed out; nor will the medical practitioner find it useless, as he may learn to preserve those parts which are changed by disease, in emergencies, when a more professed practical anatomist is not near,

Analysis of the Science of Legislation, from the Italian of the Chevalier Filangieri. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons. 1791.

WE were a little surprised at observing in the title of the original work, which has been for some time before us, the 'Science of Legislation,' published at Naples, con Licenza de' Superiori, in 1781. It seemed as if the cloud of despotism was dispersing, and had left an almost uninterrupted horizon to free enquiry and the labours of the philosopher. The spirit of liberty, which animates every sentence of M. Filangieri's work, shows that no abject fear, no latent apprehension has influenced his pen: he writes under the eye of a monarch, with the freedom of a republican under the protection of his favoured government. The merit of this work had determined us to give some account of it, when the present animated translation of the author's own abridgment, and the probability of receiving the whole with equal advantage in an English version, prevented our execution of the design. We shall therefore trace the outline now in our hands, and wait for the future work: convinced, from the specimen before us, that the author will neither lose his spirit nor his freedom in

an English dress. Seven volumes, containing four books, were published in the author's life-time, and the materials of the three remaining books were left properly arranged.

It is now the æra, in the chevalier's opinion, when legislation may lift her head. The authority of the pandects has lost its influence, superstition no longer enfeebles the mind, and political feuds no longer distract it. Princes have at last found, that to secure the tranquility and happiness of their subjects is of more importance than to multiply the modes of destruction. If he had lived at this period he would have added, that they were at last taught how far oppression could proceed, without exciting opposition; how much the subject could bear, and how terrible would be his revenge.

The work is divided into seven books. In the first are unfolded the general rules of the legislative science. In the second oeconomic and political laws are examined; in the third, criminal laws; in the fourth, that part of the science which regards education, manners, and public instruction; in the fifth, sixth, and seventh, religion, property, and paternal authority respectively.—But to be more particular.

The sole and universal object of the legislative science, our author remarks, is preservation and tranquility. These consist in the possibility of existing with ease; liberty of increasing and improving property; facility in acquiring the means of existence and enjoyment; confidence in the government, the magistrates, and the laws, while acting in conformity to the laws. From thence our author proceeds to examine the absolute goodness of laws, and afterwards their relative goodness, as adapted to different countries, states of society, and manners.

‘Montesquieu seeks in these relations the spirit of laws, and I seek the rules. He attempts to find in them reasons for what has been done, and I attempt from the same source to deduce rules for what ought to be done. My very principles will be, for the most part, different from his: things will be considered under another aspect; and content with searching for that alone which tends to my present purpose, and willingly rejecting whatever decoration and scientific pomp might usurp over that species of temperance, which ought to predominate in works consecrated to public utility; content, I say, with this sobriety of erudition, I shall confine to a few sheets, a theory, which differently managed would demand numberless volumes. I cannot however omit confessing how much I owe to the labours of this great man. It is a tribute of gratitude which I offer to one who has thought before me, and by his very errors has instructed me to gain the paths of truth.’

The general rules of legislation follow, or those axioms which will apply to different political situations.

The second book relates to the laws, whose objects are population and riches, which have a mutual influence on each other; and a very interesting part of the work is the history of the legislative systems designed for the increase of population, whose errors are conspicuous in their want of success. The causes of the failure are then investigated, the result of which will necessarily be, the want of an employment sufficiently advantageous for the support of families, and the want of security to enable the labourer to enjoy the produce of his toil, or to preserve the superfluity for his successors. This leads to the encouragement of arts, of commerce, and particularly of agriculture, the prosecution of war, moderation in taxes, and properly adapting those which are necessary to objects that shall not interfere with the principal views.

Security and tranquility are only obtained by an attention to the science of legislation, and, in what respects external violence, by a proper code of criminal laws. Every part of this subject the chevalier examines with a due regard to civil liberty, and a proper attention to the first great object, security. But this produces only a timid negative honesty, and 'fear can never give birth to heroes.' Education therefore is called in to the aid of pains and penalties, which so far as is consistent with the power of each father, who wants not the aid of the state, our author thinks should be public. In the limitation mentioned, the legislator ought not to interfere. The regulation of the passions is a rein to draw from vice, if not an incentive to virtue. The chevalier endeavours to show, with some success, that national opulence and virtue are not incompatible. The experience, however, of many successive ages, and many different countries, militates against him.—The following observations, introductory to the analysis of the fifth book, are admirable.

'Public order, private tranquility, the liberty of the citizen requiring that the law should not seek to know or wish to see all; that authority should pause at the entrance of the citizen's habitation, and respect this asylum of his peace and of his liberty, that she should not seek to penetrate into his thoughts or his intentions, but leave free the course of his desires, and consider him innocent, though guilty, as long as his guilt be not manifest; in a word, detaching from the cognizance of the law all that is hid from her eye requires, at the same time, that another rein should supply this necessary deficiency, that another tribunal, another judge, another code should regulate the secret actions of the citizen, controul his secret transports, encourage his hidden virtues, and

and direct his very undiscoverable desires to the common good ; should, in short, oblige him to be just, honest and virtuous even in those places, at those moments, and under those circumstances in which he is far removed from the eyes of the law and from her ministers. This is the work of religion, when neither enfeebled by infidelity nor corrupted by superstition : these two extremes, whereof a constant experience teaches us that the first is always the consequence of the second ; these two extremes, one of which deprives religion of its power, and the other makes it the instrument of crimes ; enormities and horrors, which to the disgrace of humanity already too often accompany the bloody ceremonies of superstition ; these two extremes ought to be equally prevented by the laws.'

The direct and indirect methods of preventing these two extremes are to be the objects of enquiry in this book ; but, when he points out as one of these, 'on what principles ecclesiastical immunity shou'd be conducted,' we fear that he admits of *some* immunity for ecclesiastics in civil cases. This book has not, however, reached us, and we are led only to suspect from the language of the author, that this is his design.

The subject of the sixth book requires no particular remark. Every code is sufficiently explicit on property, and every government respects it, except where it is wanted for the carrying on its own ambitious views. The seventh and last book contains an enquiry whether the parental authority, in former codes, has not been carried too far. M. Filangieri is of opinion, that it has been too much aggrandised, and that the edifice must be raised anew ; but its materials we can only guess at, by the different subdivisions of this book. We need not, however, indulge conjecture, when we may probably soon receive certain information.

It remains only to speak of the author, and a little more particularly of the translator. The chevalier Filangieri, to extensive knowledge joins great diligence, and a careful and attentive spirit of enquiry. An idolater of liberty, he wishes that the whole world were free ; zealous for the security and the happiness of mankind, his system of legislation, so far as we have seen, is equally wise and benevolent. A more calm enquirer will, however, in his zeal, see occasionally some visionary fancies, and an acute reasoner will sometimes find him less accurate in his metaphors, less careful in logical distinctions, and less exact in the consequences, which he draws, than the importance of the subject seems to require. The Italian also is not a language in which a writer can always express his thoughts with energetic brevity, or a close precision :
that

that the author sometimes errs in these respects is therefore a fault which ought not to be attributed to him. The translator, with a more advantageous language, is often more happy in enforcing the sentiment; and, in general, is neither deficient in accuracy nor in elegance. His periods, though seemingly 'of a mile,' are much shorter than those of the chevalier. We trust that the encouragement of the public will induce him to pursue the task, and at least to publish the two volumes which are said to be ready for the press.

Prolusiones nonnullæ Academicæ, nomine Universitatis Georgiæ Augustæ Gottingensis, Scriptæ a C. G. Heyne. Nunc primum uno Volumine Editæ. 8vo. 4s. Nicol. 1790.

IN compliance with the custom of German universities, short orations on some temporary or classical subject are usually delivered by the professor of humanity, in the university of Gottingen, on each academical festival, or, in some instances, on the day of proclaiming the festival. To this institution we owe three former volumes of Prolusions by professor Heyne; and if the present volume is favourably received, another is expected to follow. When these orations were delivered by the professors in rotation, they either used their own language, or, when they preferred the Latin, from being unaccustomed to employ that language, from choosing subjects, which would not admit of Latin phraseology, or for which, in the best days of Rome, no collateral expressions and words could be found, their whole discourse was in a barbarous style, which Cicero would not have understood. We remember Linnæus, whose Latin it has been fashionable to commend, because Rousseau has commended it, in one of his dedications, enumerated the obligations he owed to count Tessin. The whole is in a similar style to the two last lines,

Ille me ad serenissimos reges introduxit;

Ille me, cuso numismate, posteritati, commendavit.

Nothing can be more bald and unclassical, though not on a botanical subject; but as if their defects were not sufficiently conspicuous, he added, immediately after, the following beautiful lines of Virgil,

Ille meos errare boves, ut cernis, et ipsam

Ludere quæ vellem calamo permisit agresti.

The first essay in this volume is on the extensive expeditions against the barbarians, and of the incursions of the barbarians in Europe; with a view of enquiring whether either event be probable in these times. Professor Heyne engages in this disquisition in consequence of the czarina's attempt to drive the
Turks

Turks from Europe, and thinks that no expedition of this kind can be successful, from the various impediments which modern armies require, from the barbarian principle of withdrawing from the confines all kinds of provisions, which must leave an invading army in the utmost distress, and, above all, from the political views of the neighbouring kingdoms, which will prevent the aggrandizement of any one power. The incursions of barbarians is not, in his opinion, to be dreaded, till luxury has effeminated the present nations of Europe. But we shall select his own words from the conclusion of the essay.

‘ Accedunt his multa alia, quæ omnem opinionem ac metum tollunt, ne unquam similis barbarorum incursio locum habere possit: mutata omnis res militaris, tormenta in muris, loca in finibus munita, et in his perpetua præsidia cum copiis nunquam non una habitis: quas nos solemus sub militis perpetui nomine innuere. Quamdiu disciplina et scientia militaris inter Romanos viguit, numerosissimæ barbarorum copiæ fuere repressæ ac deletæ: nec, nisi superiores ipsa belli gerendi arte facti, barbari in fines Romani imperii penetravere. A barbaris itaque nihil est, quod metuamus: nisi longa sæculorum series mala, quibus premimur, ita exasperaverit, ut, exhaustis imperiis et regnis nostris profusione ac luxu, solitudine agrorum per dilectus facta, civibus in milites, aratris in enses versis, ad barbariem ipsi redierint posteri; utquæ tum existant, in alio continente, populi opulentiores et potentiores, qui arma Europæ inferant. Verum de his viderint illi ipsi posteri. Nos interea rebus nostris ita utemur, ut vitam literis et artibus multo magis excultam illis relinquamus.’

The subject of the second oration was suggested by the trial of Mr. Hastings, and the first part is a concise, but a correct history of the Roman customs respecting the condemnation and the trial of public offenders; a ‘subject obscured rather than illustrated by the diligence of former authors, who have neither distinguished private suits from public trials, nor discriminated the peculiar conduct at periods of a very different political nature.’ Our author traces the practice from the times of the kings, when the monarch had the privilege of appointing and conducting public trials, to that of the consuls, who for a time had the same power, till it was assumed by the people, and centered in the magistrates. This discussion, though short, displays a vast extent of ancient legal knowledge, and a clearness and precision not often found in antiquarian enquiries. A singular circumstance we shall extract from the conclusion.

‘ Videamus nunc id, quod omnino mirationem facit, cum nul-
lum

tum iudiciũ haberi nullam quæstionem exerceri, adeoque nec rerum quamvis nocentissimum condemnari potuisse audimus, nisi accusator existeret; ex officio autem, quod nos dicere solemus, magistratus non quæreret. Mansit id haud dubie ex prisco iudiciorum more; cum ad populum non nisi magistratus diem dicerent; aut ii qui a magistratu in concionem producti essent. Quæstionibus itaque perpetuis constitutis nihil aliud mandatum est prætori quam quod ad populi curam antea spectaverat: ut reum ad se adductum iudicarent. Simul autem invaluit alterum, ut accusandi potestas esset unicuique e populo. Verum monenda de his sunt alia nonnulla; perveniendum, tunc ad ipsum iudiciũ; et constituendus accusator, perorandaque causa.

Mr. Hastings, our author observes, like Verres, is accused by the most eloquent men of the nation, as the robber of India, for he is '*reported* to have been guilty of every crime which luxury could suggest, every punishment which cruelty, every kind of rapine which avarice, and every contumely which pride can inflict;' and this event has proved, in the professor's opinion, what Cicero had long since observed, that public trials and defences furnish the best opportunities for the display of eloquence. It is not intended, either by the author or ourselves, to decide by these observations on the guilt of the late governor: we introduce them as farther confirmations of the truth of Cicero's remark, which is extended, by the eloquent language of the professor, even to the historian of the event.—But to return. The distinction between public and private causes having arisen from the appeal to the people, which was necessary to establish a cause as a public one, while the other kind was referred to the magistrate, in process of time new causes arose, not precisely defined, or whose nature was not fully understood. In these, questions were proposed by the senate and the people, separately, to the questors, till at last the whole power of the people was in particular circumstances delegated to the questors. M. Heyne next explains some minute variations that occur, shows by what steps public accusers and defenders were appointed, and gives a short account of the methods usually observed in trials. These disquisitions afford nothing particularly new.

The three following orations were delivered on the occasion of the king's late recovery, and on his birth-day. The last contains an account of the prize questions, &c. These addresses are chiefly distinguished by their loyalty and classical elegance: we can find nothing so interesting as to induce us to give a fuller account of them.

The seventh oration is on slavery, the subject suggested by the late attempts in England and France to abolish the slave-trade. It is an elegant declamation in favour of liberty, in opposition to tyranny of every kind, and our author condemns, though perhaps with less indignation than he must feel, the infamous practice of hiring troops to carry on wars with which they have no connection. The principal part of the essay is on the country of the slaves, collected in the Grecian and Roman states; and as the origin of slavery was luxury and effeminacy in the more powerful and opulent nations, so slavery was known as early as the enervating habits of the more luxurious ages, and in countries where luxury most abounded. The earliest knowledge we have of slaves is from holy writ, and even in those days the lives or services of men were bought. Our author's subject leads him to take it up in other times and in different places. The predatory incursions of the Phœnicians were the first means of procuring slaves known in Greece; and they were afterwards supplied by captives in war, by voluntary sale, or the infamous practice of kidnapping. Our author pursues the subject by an elegant history of slavery in Rome, interspersed occasionally with sentiments of benevolence and humanity, as honourable to his feelings as the disquisition itself is to his talents.

'The liberty of the people rarely recovered with the expected advantages,' furnishes the subject of the reflections in the last oration. If our author is a friend to personal, he seems not to be an idolater of civil liberty; and his essay is full of instances where the people in general, after all their struggles for liberty, have been happier under a monarchical government. If ever an academical oration was delivered 'by command,' we should suppose this owed its origin to superior influence. The affairs of France confessedly suggested the subject, though that kingdom is not once mentioned. It is not one of the most favourable specimens of our author's ability, for not one of his instances is applicable to the question from whence the disquisition originated.

On the whole, however, these elegant classical orations may be read with much pleasure, and we think a second volume would receive a hearty welcome; for those who are acquainted with professor Heyne's classical abilities will read with satisfaction the slightest effusions of his pen. If, however, another volume is reprinted in England, it should be with much more attention, for the errors of the press are so numerous and important as to make the language in many places unintelligible.

Sketch of the Character of his Royal Highness the Prince of Denmark. To which is added, a short Review of the present State of Literature and the Polite Arts in that Country. Interspersed with Anecdotes. In four Letters, by a Gentleman long resident in Copenhagen, to his Friend in London. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Ridgway. 1791.

THIS interesting tract is, as would appear from several idioms not English, the production of some ingenious foreigner. The character of the prince of Denmark is painted in the most splendid colours, as indeed it deserves. His love of his country; his protection of the freedom of the press, so uncommon in most princes, but so natural in one who has nothing to fear from it; his liberal education; his deliverance of the peasants from slavery; his opening the trade of Iceland; his private life; his warm attachment to literature; and his other great and good qualities, are descanted upon in a pleasing manner. In the notes we find short accounts of the illustrious men of Denmark, and shall extract one of the most important.

† Andreas Petrus, Count of Bernstorff, Knight of the Order of the Elephant, Minister of State for foreign affairs, President of the German Chancery, &c. This nobleman is heir and successor to the late Joh. Hartw. Ernest Count Bernstorff, who united in his character all those talents of the mind and qualities of the heart that could justly recommend him to the general esteem of his own times, and transmit his name with honour to posterity. Indeed no name is higher on the roll of those citizens, whose memory is most revered for a warm and disinterested love of their country. Actuated by that generous spirit, he was the first, who attempted the abolition of feudal slavery in Denmark; and in order to shew, that he really thought the condition of a *glebæ adscriptus* was a violent infringement of the laws of human nature, he gave perfect freedom to all his vassals, with the advice of his noble heir. The consequences were such as might be expected. The tenants of Bernstorff, formerly wretched as all their neighbours had no sooner taken the land, which they inhabited in a perpetual feu, and begun to labour for their own benefit, than plenty and happiness took up their abode amongst them, and rendered them the objects of admiration and envy. And so sensible have the tenants been of this, that they have erected a very handsome monument of marble to the memory of their deceased father and benefactor, near the high road leading to Copenhagen, which the traveller often bedews with the tear of gratitude, intermingled with rapture, in reflecting on those deeds, which crowned the truest friend of human rights.

To this we must beg leave to add another extract, from p. 10, farther illustrative of this important affair.

‘ The peasants till 1787 had been in a situation little better than the brute creation; they scarce could be said to possess any loco-motive power, insomuch that, they had no liberty to leave one estate and to settle on another, without their purchased permission from their masters; and if they chanced to move without their permission, they were claimed as strayed cattle. Such was the state of those wretched beings who, at best, only might be said to vegetate. These chains of feudal slavery were now broken, through the interest of his royal highness; and, the prisoners, for such I think they might be called, were declared free, upon a plan laid down by the patriotic and humane Count Bernstorff and Count Christian Ditlef Friderich Reventlow.’

The private life of the prince deserves particular notice, and we cannot avoid extracting it, as a strong contrast to that of most princes known to us.

‘ He rises at six; reads when he is dressing, the petitions presented to him the preceding evening; rides out, reviews the garrison, returns at twelve; and when dressing, reads such papers, as may have been presented in the forenoon. At two he dines with the royal family; and at four retires to his own apartments in the palace of Christiansbourg, where persons of all ranks and condition are admitted in their turn. The people promiscuously assemble in the antichambre, whence they are conducted one by one to the Prince, to whom they present in writing the particulars of their complaint, request, &c. accompanied by a few words merely expressive of the contents, to which his highness returns a short answer, but not till he has asked such questions as never fail to make him master of the subject; at the end of which he bows, which is the sign to withdraw.

‘ The levee closes at seven. The prince then drinks tea in his own closet, the better to indulge the wish, which he has so frequently manifested, of transacting public business. It is also on this account that the Prince for some time past has denied himself the pleasure of conversing with his royal sister, (of whom he is remarkably fond), except on Sunday evenings, from eight to nine. This done, he reads petitions, on which he makes observations on the margin; after which he classes them according to the nature of the subject; and in this manner they are sent to the secretaries of state, whose departments are calculated to meet these classes. Supper is ready at nine, and at eleven all is quiet in the palace.’

The prince’s patronage of literature forms another interesting feature, at a period when most monarchs, princes, and nobles,

nobles, seem totally to forget this part of their duty. We would beg leave to whisper in their ear, that there is no part of their duty, which operates more for their own interest: and that the democratic spirit, now prevailing in Europe, originates, in a great degree, from the neglect of literary men, which has induced them to have recourse to the passions of the multitude, and to sow seeds of discontent; for the opinions of literary men prevail slowly, but certainly, among nations at large. Among the works, for which we are indebted to the prince's patronage, the following are mentioned: Vahl's *Flora Danica*, the *Conchology*, by Chemnitz and Spengler, the *Scriptores Rerum Danicarum* by Langebeck and Suhm, the *Description of the King's Minerals, Coins, and Medals*, by Müller, Nielson, Spengler, and Voss.

In p. 21 it is observed that, since the present king of Denmark changed capital punishments into hard labour and imprisonment for life, crimes have decreased ninety per cent. The attention of the prince to education, and to the erection and proper regulation of schools, is next mentioned with deserved applause. His courage and endurance of military fatigue, his benevolence, his affability, his annuities to literary persons, and to young men of promising talents, at home and abroad, his ordering moral and scientific pamphlets, printed at his own expence, to be disposed among the poor, and lastly his domestic happiness in his marriage, complete the transcendent character of the heir of Denmark. We wish that this first letter were translated into all languages, and placed in the cabinet of every prince in Europe; but are happy that it has appeared in our own language, in which it was most wanted.

The second of these valuable letters opens the account of the present state of literature in Denmark. Nicolai Moore has been sent to explore the natural history of Iceland, and the Feroe isles. Others have been appointed to explore that part of Greenland, which was colonized from Iceland and Norway in the eleventh century, but which has been lost to European research since the fourteenth, being blocked up with rocks of ice. Messieurs Bugge and Morville are constructing a survey of Denmark and Norway, upon trigonometrical principles. Lovenorn has published maps of Iceland from actual surveys. Moldenhawer, the king's librarian, has visited Spain, to study on the spot the literary history of that country, so little known, and so worthy of being known. The patronage of literature, by prince Frederic, the king's brother, and by chamberlain Suhm, whose library 'is open to public consultation six hours every day, and books are also lent out to readers of every description,' next engages our author's attention; and then Guld-

berg's Universal History, and his Essay on the Genius of Milton. To professor Abeldgaard Denmark is indebted for a School of Farriery, 'perhaps the first in Europe,' says our author; but we suspect that it was preceded by different *Ecoles Veterinaires* in France.

We next find mentioned the Royal Museum, and different private cabinets; the university of Copenhagen, which has been renovated, and the 'scholastic loquacity' thrown out; the Anatomical Academy, and a list of the departments and professors of the Academy. Thence we pass to the Royal Society of Sciences, of whose transactions sixteen volumes have appeared; and to the Society of Scandinavian History, well worthy of imitation in this country, for the original monuments of our history are much neglected. The patriotic labours of Arnas Magnuson, in Icelandic literature, are next reviewed; and are followed by Malling's biographical works, and by an account of the Danish and Norwegian Society of Heraldry and Biography. This letter closes with some details concerning the Danish Society for the encouragement of Agriculture, Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, incorporated by the king of Denmark, in 1769, upon the model of those of London and Dublin.

In Letter III. the progress of the Danish language and poetry is developed. The old Danish language was the same with the Icelandic, but the most ancient monument, in which the Danish appears as a distinct dialect, is the Law of Jutland, passed by Waldemar I. in the year 1242. It is surprising that Denmark produced no poet worth notice till this century; the only poetry of Denmark, in the middle ages, being ballads, published in Peter Syv's *Danske kæmpe viser*; but 'in many of these you feel every degree of sentiment and passion, which the poet seems to have at his controul, from the soft and smoothing touches of Anacreon and Catullus, to the brazen clangour of Tjrtæus.'—'Indeed the collection of ballads above mentioned is a convincing proof that the Danish language possesses, in a high degree, what we call the pathetic and sublime.' Our author might have mentioned two other collections of Danish ballads, one printed in the last century, and the other at Copenhagen, 1780. He then proceeds to mention that the only Danish remain of the middle ages, in prose, is the *Jærtegns Pøstil*, or Magazine of Miracles. 'And thus the history of the language rests on mere conjecture till the year 1575, when a Danish translation of Saxo's History of Denmark was published by Andrew Soffrenson Wedel, with all the strength and colouring of the original.'

The labours of Rostgaard and Gram, in improving the Danish

nish language, are then briefly stated: and our author proceeds in the following terms to characterise Holberg.

‘ It luckily happened that baron Holberg was contemporary with Rostgaard and Gram. The baron, on his return from a literary tour of Europe, settled at Copenhagen, with a view of refining the taste of his countrymen—and his success in that respect has been such, as to gain him the well earned title of the father of Belles Lettres in Denmark. His works are very numerous—scarce a branch of science, that is not indebted to him. Having studied Shakespeare in England, Moliere in France, and Ariosto in Italy, he made himself master of every avenue to the human heart:—aided by the irresistible charms of Poetry, he courted Imagination, who may be said to have lent him her wand as often as he chose to borrow it;—and, as he was convinced, that the impressions of theatrical representations have the liveliest effects, he called in the stage to his aid. Previous to this time, a full house was preferred to a judicious one; such pieces, therefore, were only exhibited, as tended to captivate the eye; little regard was paid to the improvement of the mind; the new blown bubble of the day was all that was sought for. Holberg saw this, lamented it, and determined to stem the torrent of prejudice: his endeavours were crowned with success—his plays became popular, approved by men of sense and wit, the Gay and Otway of the stage—a revolution at once took place in the taste and manners of the nation. Indeed it is not easy to point out what is most worthy of admiration in the writings of this author, even on the driest subject. His moral sentiments, which have been translated into English, are found to be as entertaining as his voyage under ground (being a satire on the university of which he was member), and *The Voyage of Peter Paars*, an epic poem in imitation of the *Odyssey*, in which the vulgar errors of Denmark, and the inhuman customs then prevalent amongst the insular inhabitants of Cattegat, are depicted with all the ingenuity of an *Aretine* and a *Butler*.’

Some other illustrious names are mentioned; and it is stated that the Society of Belles Lettres sprung up in 1759. The latest and best Danish authors are Guldberg, a moral and historic writer; Snedorph, also a moralist; Jacobi and Vogelius in eloquence; Sporon and Baden in criticism; Batholm, Smith, and Treshow, in Sermons; Suhm in tales and history; Rothe in politics; Frieman, Lund, and Olrog, in sacred poetry; Ewald, Tullin, Baggesen, Rabeck, and Pram, in poetry; Storm in fables; Warnsted and Rosenstand in the drama. Other dramatic authors and actors are next characterised; and the letter concludes with some hints on the translations into Danish from the English, and on the clubs in Copenhagen.

The fourth letter contains the present state of the polite arts in Denmark. They were successively patronised by Frederic II. and Christian IV. which last, in particular, erected many noble structures, and encouraged Manderen, a Flemish painter, to settle in his kingdom. In the present century Frederic IV. was a great patron of the arts; and was succeeded in that laudable attachment by Christian VI. and by Frederic V. The Academy of Arts was founded in 1754. Abeldgaard is represented as the best modern painter in Denmark. It is worthy of mention, and of imitation, that the young artists who gain the first prize, have a right to go abroad at the public expence, in order to study the works of the best masters.

We have been the more full in our account of this work, as the state of literature and arts in Denmark is but little known in this country; and we must conclude with saying, that in no work of the size have we met with more curious and authentic information.

The Metrical History of Sir William Wallace, Knight of Ellerslie, by Henry, commonly called Blind Harry. Carefully transcribed from the Manuscript Copy of that Work in the Advocates' Library, under the Eye of the Earl of Buchan; and now printed, for the first Time, according to the ancient and true Orthography. With Notes and Dissertations. 3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Perth, Morisons. 1790.

THIS publication of the fabulous History of Wallace is the best which has yet appeared; and we doubt not but it will meet with a favourable reception, not only in North Britain, but among the admirers of ancient vernacular poetry in this part of the island. It is, however, only valuable as representing the state of language and manners in Scotland during the fifteenth century, when it was written; for it is so unchronological a romance, that even one or two historical facts, which may be found in it, are so much distorted as to lose their credit.

The editor has made a ridiculous attempt to persuade his readers of the veracity of this wild production. But before we attend to his theory upon this point, we must beg leave to offer a few remarks upon his account of the author of this popular poem: and upon the poem itself.

The editor, not being at all versed in the writers, or the manners of the middle ages, infers, p. 7, that Henry, the author, 'if we may judge from a passage in his book, in which he appears to boast of his celibacy, may be supposed to have entered, in a degree consistent with his blindness, into one or other of the religious orders.' While nothing can be more clear,

clear, from the account of John Major, than that our author was an itinerant minstrel; a character as remote from that of a monk, as a player from that of a priest. The argument from our author's celibacy is truly singular. A minstrel's roving and dissipated life was as inimical to marriage as the monastic, though from a cause exactly the reverse. In poems written by monks we find invocations of saints, of the Virgin, some slight features at least of religion; but of this there is not a token in all Henry's poem.

The editor in the next place, to conciliate truth to this romance, endeavours to place its antiquity as high as he can. Major, whose history was published in the year 1521, says it was composed in the time of his infancy: that is, we shall say, before Major was ten years of age. We cannot suppose Major more than seventy years of age when his history was published; and if so, Henry's poem appeared at the earliest supposition, between 1460 and 1470. Our editor, however, from an idle conjecture of Crawford, in his life of Major, prefixed to the edition of his History, Edin. 1740, infers Major to have been born in 1446; and that Henry composed exactly when Major was screaming in the cradle! Again, Dempster, by one among a thousand errors, says that Henry *lived* in 1361; and our ingenious and accurate editor thence infers that he *was born* in that year!

In order to give the reader some idea of the language and orthography of this old poem, we shall present him with a few lines from the beginning.

‘ Our antecessowris, that we suld of reide,
And hald in mynde yar nobille worthi deide,
We lat ourslide, throw werray slouthfulness;
And castt us evir till uther besyneses,’ &c.

The editor has fallen not only into the common error of printing the old *ȝ*, which is neither more nor less than *y* consonant, as the Roman letter *z*; but has added another improvement by printing the Saxon *p*, or *th* as *y*. Every antiquary knows that the forms of these different letters, in the careless transcripts of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, are exactly the same; because indeed their original forms were very similar. But in printing it would be as just to retain the form of every letter in the manuscript, as to put the Roman *z* for the Saxon *ȝ*; and to retain every contraction as to put *y* for *th*. No editor of Chaucer has fallen into this gross error, nor attempted to rival Tom Hearne in such ridiculous minutiae. The sound is the matter to be attended to in such instances; and it is perfectly known that *the* was never pronounced *ye*, nor the

consonant *y* as *z*, either in England or Scotland. The Scotch printers and editors, instead of *antiquizing*, in fact modernise by this corruption; for if they had manuscripts of the fourteenth, or preceding centuries, they would find *y* consonant and *z*, and *th*, and *y*, quite distinct letters, although very similar. It is well known, from names of families in Scotland, not to mention other circumstances, that the letter printed as *z* was, and is, pronounced as *y* consonant, thus lord *Zair*, is lord *Yair*; *Dalzell*, is *Dalyell*, &c. We have made these remarks for the sake of our northern brethren, whose vernacular literature is neither much read nor understood by our English antiquaries, chiefly because this uncouth orthography obscures both the sound and the sense.

If we except the orthography, this edition presents no important variation from the preceding ones. It is divided as in the manuscript, only into eleven books; but in the printed copies book ix. of the manuscript is split at vol. ii. p. 128, into two, so that the number amounts to twelve.

In vol. iii. we find a chronology of the life of Wallace, as narrated by Henry: and we were not a little surprised to find it commence with the following intelligence: 'Wallace was about sixteen years of age when he was put to the school at Dundee. He was twenty-nine years of age when he suffered death at London, August, 1305. Some affirmed that he was forty-five years of age when he was sold to the English in 1305. But Henry says, however much they might be displeased, he must assert that the contrary was the truth.'

Among our various acts of parliament it is to be regretted that we have not one forbidding people to write upon a subject of which they know nothing,

If Wallace was only twenty-nine years of age when executed in 1305, he must have been a youth of *twenty-one* in 1297, when set at the head of many haughty nobles, and of a fierce nation. What probability is there in this? The only inducement which the Scottish barons could have to permit Wallace's assumption of the regency of Scotland, must have been his superior abilities and experience. But what proof could a youth, fresh from school, according to our editor's idea, have given of those indispensable qualities? This absurdity, undeserving of serious confutation, the editor has fallen into from misunderstanding the following passage, towards the end of the poem.

'But maistr Blayr, and als schyr Thomas Gray,
Eftir Wallace yai leyst mony day.
Yir twa knew best off gudd schyr Wilzham's deid,
Fra faxten zer quhill nyne and twenty zeid;

Fortye and fyffe off age Wallace was cauld,
Yat tym yat he was to Sothroune fauld.
Yocht yis mater be nocht to all plesance
Hys futhfast deid was worthi till awance,' &c.

Any one, in the smallest degree versed in old language, must see that the above passage, literally translated, stands thus : ' But master Blair, and also sir Thomas Gray, after Wallace they lasted (lived) many a day. These two knew best of good sir William's deeds, from (the time that he was) sixteen years (of age), till twenty-nine years were gone, (that is during the space of twenty-nine years in Henry's absurd chronology). Wallace was called forty-five years of age, that time that he was sold to the English. Though this matter (book, subject) may not please all (readers), his true deeds were worthy of praise,' &c. The last two lines, which begin a new paragraph, in which Henry apologises for the lameness of his performance, our skillful editor applies to the former sentence. It is wonderful that it did not strike him that sixteen and twenty-nine make just forty-five !

While these remarks are intended to check the inaccuracy of the editor employed by the Morisons, we must compliment these gentlemen upon their attention to the ancient literature of their country, which has been too much neglected. This, and their other editions of old Scottish poets, are very neatly printed ; and their only typographical desideratum is a blacker ink. The plates are tolerable ; but the portrait of Wallace is a modern forgery, and appears with the truncheon, a badge unknown till the sixteenth century. The face is, however, nearer fifty, than the editor's ideal twenty-nine.

The Address of Q. Sept. Tertullian to Scapula Tertullus, Proconsul of Africa. Translated by Sir David Dalrymple. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Murray and Cochran, Edinburgh. 1790.

THE respectable translator of this little work has before given to the public several translations of the early monuments of the Christian church ; and we are sorry that we cannot congratulate him upon his success in this department. In the historical and juridical antiquities of his own country, we are always happy to meet with lord Hailes : and we can hardly conceive what motive induces him to abandon a province in which he is eminent, for one in which he makes but an indifferent figure. Perhaps he thinks it especially incumbent on him, as a layman, to undertake the defence of Christianity against that legion of lay infidels which now assails it. But we must beg leave to remind his lordship that the defenders of Christianity

Christianity are already many, and strong; that the fugitive infantry which he arranges will do no execution on the foe; and that the worst kind of enmity is a weak defence.

His lordship observes in his preface, that 'the traces of a wild imagination are not so discernible in the address to Scapula, as in the other works of Tertullian. The topics which he uses seem, in general, well chosen, and judiciously enforced.' He then proceeds to state that, by a singular fancy, he has attempted to translate this work into mere English, studiously avoiding every word which the Norman conquest may have introduced into the language. And though our learned translator has not been extremely careful in this respect, yet he has succeeded tolerably; and the effect has been to give his translation an antique and solemn air, very well adapted to a religious treatise. The preface concludes with a promise that, in the notes, may be found a detection of some 'strange inaccuracies' in Mr. Gibbon's work. But in this particular we have been disappointed. His lordship shews, even in his best productions, to have too great a fondness for quibble and verbal criticism; and in the notes to this translation we are overwhelmed with abundance of this propensity. Mr. Gibbon's work is so vast, that many errors may undoubtedly be found in it; but the public is not so unjust as to expect perfect works from men: but, on the contrary, is so enlightened as to know that the most excellent works have often the greatest defects.

We shall give a sentence or two from the translation, which engaged our attention, and which may also serve as specimens of the language and manner. The works of Tertullian are sufficiently known to the learned; and to the unlearned we should be slow in recommending them in a translation. In p. 3, the following tenets are remarkable. Tertullian is speaking of the Christian and Pagan religions. 'But it belongeth of right unto mankind that every one may worship as he thinketh best; nor doth the religion of any man harm or help another. Neither indeed is it the business of religion to compel religion, which ought to be taken up willingly, and not against the will.' What advocate for passive obedience ever used stronger terms than the following? 'Christians have no hatred or ill-will at any man, and least of all at Cæsar; for knowing him to be set up by *their* God, they must needs love him, and shew him worship, and wish his welfare and the welfare of the Roman state, while the times which now are shall last, *and so long shall that state last*. Thus do we give worship unto Cæsar so far, and in such a way, as is lawful for us, and is fit for him, *as a man next to God*, and having from God whatever he hath, *and as only less than the true God*.' What nonsense and blasphemy!

This

This may serve, among many instances, to show that the writings of the fathers should be left, in their original dress, to the judicious discrimination of the learned; for so simple and neglected is their style, so singular their mode of argumentation, so various their opinions, so very uncouth their manner, to an age critical and fond of ridicule, that translations of their works must do far more harm than good to the Christian cause.

The notes are much too large; and many of them quite excursive, and foreign to the purpose, particularly the astronomical note p. 62—74.

A Simple Story. By Mrs. Inchbald. Second Edition. 4 Vols. Small 8vo. 12s. sewed. Robinsons.

IN our Review for February we prophesied that there would be more than one edition of this work, and are glad to find our prediction already verified. In the same confidence we now venture to give our opinion that the demand of the public will not let it rest here.

We recommended it to Mrs. Inchbald to fill up the void of seventeen years at the beginning of the third volume. Perhaps the shortness of the time may be the reason why she has not complied with our advice; but candour now requires that we should say, she will do well to consider this point maturely, as what at first appeared to us as a blemish, has been approved of by many critics of taste, as a new and artful way of conducting a story. It may likewise be true, that Mrs. Inchbald's delicacy revolted from a minute description of the falling off from virtue, and the progress of vice. Still it is for her consideration whether such scenes, represented with the nice touches of an elegant pencil, will not improve the moral of her work.—It is with pleasure we see that several inaccuracies, which had escaped from her pen, are removed in the present edition. If this writer continues to revise her works with the same attention to friendly advice, we may pronounce that the beauties of her style will soon be as much admired as the elegance of her sentiments,

Naval and Military Memoirs of Great Britain, from the Year 1727, to the present Time. In Six Volumes. By R. Beatson, Esq. First Three Volumes. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Strachan. 1790.

WE cannot give a better idea of the present work, than by laying before our readers a part of the author's preface:

'The following work is intitled, *Naval and Military Memoirs of Great Britain.* The author does not assume the name of history;

tory; both because he was diffident of his own abilities, to give his work the high polish and finishing which a well written history requires; and because his plan was to be more particular and minute, respecting individual services, than general history will admit of. Upon a subject which he considers as of the highest importance to his country, he has been long assiduously employed in collecting materials; and he hopes now to be able to lay before the public, that ample and particular information of Naval Transactions, which seemed to be so much wanted by the inhabitants of this island.

‘The military transactions recorded in these volumes, are such only as have a relation to maritime affairs, or are connected with naval services, which form the primary and principal object of the present work. In this view, he is of opinion, that many advantages may result from an accurate examination of such combined expeditions; and he has therefore been minute in the detail of them.

‘The narration of naval and military services commences with the year 1727, where the celebrated doctor Campbell, in his lives of the admirals, leaves off; and it is meant to be continued to the year 1789. The volumes at present published, proceed as far as 1763. The sequel is in great forwardness; and if the public shall approve of what is now laid before them, the rest, consisting of more recent and newer materials, will soon after follow.

‘With respect to naval transactions, his intention is to be full and complete; giving a particular account not only of the operations of fleets and squadrons, but noticing every action fought by single ships, and every instance of meritorious naval service. Such minuteness he deems essential to his plan: and he thinks it may prove highly beneficial to his country. It is not the magnitude of the object that makes courage or zeal conspicuous, or merit more apparent: the private captain, in fighting even a sloop of war, may manifest that professional skill and ability, which shall hereafter point him out to his country as qualified to be entrusted with her highest and most important commands.’

It must be observed, upon this extract, that in our opinion, the author should have intitled his work, ‘Naval Memoirs, &c.’ and have explained in his preface, that it was necessary in some cases, to detail the military transactions, as having a necessary and intimate connection with the naval. As the title stands, it promises too much.

To the design and to the execution we must give applause, as being in no mean degree useful and meritorious. One of the noblest offices of history is to stimulate to great actions, by animated representations, and by just and discriminated praise. A
sympathetic

sympathetic fire, a warm and pervading principle of emulation, are thus kindled in the bosoms of such readers as are enabled by their situations to imitate, and to rival the actors in former scenes of fame. But general history would become too diffuse if it recorded all the minute actions worthy of applause, if it detailed the name of every officer who has signalised himself in a small circle, and who would have been a hero if fortune had enlarged the field of his exertion. A work which professes to remedy this defect, and especially in our naval history, the most important and interesting department in the latter annals of Great Britain, must deserve great approbation if executed with fidelity, care, and impartiality, as the present appears to be.

The events recorded in these volumes are so recent, and in general so well known, that it is unnecessary to give many or large extracts. We must, however, enable our readers to judge of the author's manner, by presenting them with some passages, and these we shall select as being either new, or little attended to, or as containing sensible remarks upon the transactions mentioned.

Mr. Beatson observes upon admiral Hosier's expedition in 1728:

' Thus ended this ill-advised expedition, which, from the time admiral Hosier had arrived in these seas, had cost the nation, independent of an immense treasure, two admirals, ten captains, fifty lieutenants, and about four thousand inferior officers and seamen; and this by the unhealthiness of the climate alone; for the fleet remained inactive and rotting at anchor, while the sailors perished, and the nation continued insulted and unrevenged.'

The following apology from vol. i. p. 71. must not be omitted, though almost unnecessary, after what was said in the preface.

' The author of these Memoirs is well aware, that he may by many be blamed for his relation of both naval and military actions, apparently too insignificant for public notice; and likewise for being too circumstantial in his detail of the conduct of the officers engaged in them. But he requests that no one will judge harshly of him on these accounts, or even hastily; but reflect, that it was one of the principal designs of his work, to do all possible justice to every British, and other officer; and pointedly and particularly to narrate those actions wherein their bravery and good conduct rendered them eminently conspicuous: and this, in order to stimulate others to the like exertions; since the many illustrious actions performed by the gallant sons of Britain and Ireland, while they commanded single ships, or ships of small force, are to be considered as

so many progressive steps by which they obtained the command of fleets ; and have also been the means of endearing them to their country, and of rendering their names immortal.'

Our author's remarks upon the unfortunate business of Carthagera, 1741, deserve especial attention.

' The reader will easily perceive from what has been said, that it was in the power of the vice-admiral to have obviated the complaint, even supposing all the crews of the ships of war to have been employed on actual service, by ordering some of the transports to carry water for the use of the troops. After this unfortunate coolness had taken place between the commanders, I am afraid the army had but too much reason to complain of the partiality shewn by the vice-admiral to the fleet. They had frequently a supply of fresh beef and turtle: of these luxuries the army was not allowed to partake, as if they had not belonged to the same master, and as if employed on a different service. General Wentworth expressed a wish to employ two or three small vessels in the catching of turtle for the use of the sick. This favour was refused him ; and even the allowance of salt provisions was not regularly furnished to the army. In the mean time, the vice and rear-admiral's divisions with some of the transports, continued to warp and sail into the harbour as fast as the weather would permit. This tedious work being finished by the 30th, the fireships and frigates were stationed round the harbour in order to guard every pass and creek, and to cut off all supplies going into the city. Commodore Lestock with his division, was left at Bocca Chica, with orders to reembark the troops and cannon with all possible dispatch.

' The painful and disagreeable part of this unfortunate expedition now comes to be narrated ; irksome as it is, it must be told. From it much instruction may be drawn, It should be a lesson to officers to avoid dissension ; and to reflect, that it is only by means of good agreement and mutual exertions that the public service can be effectually carried on. How far each of the chief commanders were to blame, it is difficult to determine : their tempers were certainly extremely different. General Wentworth had ever been considered as an accomplished man, and far from being deficient in abilities. The vice-admiral was allowed to be a good officer ; but his manners and temper were unaccommodating. Accustomed to dictate, he could not bear to have an equal in command ; and from his overbearing and boisterous conduct here, he sullied the laurels he had so well earned at Porto Bello. The love of his country on this occasion seems sunk in personal animosity ; for certain it is, that after the taking of Fort St. Lewis, both commanders contracted a hearty contempt for each other, taking every opportunity of expressing their mutual dislike. Regard for the service of the public
seemed

seemed quite absorbed in their personal disgust of each other. Instead of frequent intercourse, and consulting how they might best carry their orders into practice, they maintained the utmost distance and reserve. Each had his party, which tended to make their differences the more public, and afforded to each the means of endeavouring to throw all the blame on the other. The vice-admiral, wholly unacquainted with the nature of military operations, often blamed the general for delays in which he had no share, and used such asperity of language in urging him to expedite his operations, as could not fail to irritate the best of tempers. This conduct so fouled the mind of general Wentworth, that he scorned to ask any assistance, or to have any connection with a man who could behave to him as he had done. On the other hand, the vice-admiral would not condescend to give what was not asked of him. Thus was the public service sacrificed to the mean spirit of resentment.'

Mr. Beatson observes, p. 107, that 'general Wentworth did not possess a genius for enterprise.' In short, it appears that two more improper leaders could hardly have been selected for this important expedition. Admiral Vernon's courage was sufficiently conspicuous in the capture of Porto Bello; but all tactical writers admit that a leader may be eminent for a *coup de main*, or a small action demanding prompt execution; and yet totally incapacitated for a great and lengthened action, requiring deep and remote designs, all gradually concentrating to a focus, indefatigable patience in awaiting occasion, and decisive speed in seizing it when it offers. Admiral Vernon's temper was also quite unfit for a joint command. He had only courage, the common quality of the common foldier: general Wentworth appears not to have had even this; and both together seem not to have been equal to a subordinate command, far less to the important office of generalship, requiring mental powers, both theoretic and practical, of the very first order.

The subsequent anecdote may perhaps amuse: we must premise that the *ensign* is not a person, but a banner.

'Captain Peter Warren, of his majesty's ship the Squirrel took the largest and only remaining privateer belonging to St. Jago de Cuba, mounting sixteen guns, having a crew of one hundred and thirty men, and commanded by one Valladon, a Frenchman, who had done much mischief to our trade in these seas. But the discovery made in consequence of this capture, was of much more importance than the capture itself, and was entirely owing to the indignation which an honest tar, one of Captain Warren's crew, felt at seeing a dead Spaniard lying on a British ensign. Captain Warren found the privateer at anchor in a little cove behind a rock:

rock; most of whose crew were ashore cutting a bowsprit. The weather being very fine, he anchored close to the privateer, whom he engaged so warmly, that part of the crew who were on board took to their boats, and joined their companions on shore. To prevent captain Warren from taking possession of the vessel, they kept up a smart fire of small arms from behind the rocks; but the lieutenant of the Squirrel, and twenty brave fellows, disregarding their efforts, boarded her. Both ships now fired some broadsides among the rocks, where the privateer's people had taken shelter, by which many of them were killed; and the remainder were glad, by a precipitate flight, to find safety in the woods. Some of captain Warren's people pushed ashore after them; one of whom found the dead Spaniard in manner mentioned above. The sailor swore, damn him, if he should lie on so honourable a bed; and immediately rolling off the dead body, brought away the ensign, in the corner of which, he found wrapped up a packet of letters, which he delivered to captain Warren as soon as he returned on board. The captain gave them to Admiral Vernon; who finding them of the greatest consequence, transmitted them to the duke of Newcastle.'

Mr. Beaumont gives a clear account of the causes which induced sir Robert Walpole to resign in 1742, after an administration of more than twenty years. His ministry was certainly not a brilliant one; but his faults were exceeded by those of most of the following ministers, till Mr. Pitt assumed the helm, and obtained advantages which of a sudden made one of the most unfortunate reigns appear one of the most fortunate. The deplorable spirit of party which rendered most of our exertions a series of blunders, is well chastised by our author in different passages.

We cannot resist the temptation of transcribing the following extract from vol. i. p. 206. The author is speaking of the court-martial which was held at Deptford in May 1746, for the trial of vice-admiral Lestock, and of which Perry Mayne, esq. rear-admiral of the blue, was president. This affair may shew, that though we do not push liberty to licentiousness, as the French seem to do, by introducing trials by jury in our fleets and armies; nor chuse to reverse the ancient metaphor, by making a *ship* a *republic*; yet we know the superior dignity of our civil courts, the courts of liberty, to the martial, or those of mere necessity.

* During the sitting of this court-martial, a very remarkable occurrence happened. On the 15th of May, the president of the court was arrested by virtue of a writ of *capias*, issued by sir John Willes, lord chief justice of the common pleas, in consequence
of

of a verdict which had been obtained by lieutenant George Frye of the marines, against sir Chaloner Ogle, Perry Mayne, and others, for false imprisonment and maltreatment in the West Indies, by means of an illegal sentence passed by a court-martial, against him, of which they were members. The arresting of the president highly offended all the members of the court; and, not duly considering the great superiority of the civil law over the military, they, while heated with passion, entered into resolutions, in which they expressed themselves against the lord chief justice of the common pleas with great disrespect and acrimony. These they sent, together with a remonstrance on the subject, to Mr. Corbet, to be by him laid before the lords commissioners of the admiralty. Their lordships were much displeased at the indignity offered the court, and laid their proceedings before his majesty. The duke of Newcastle, by his majesty's command, wrote to the lords commissioners of the admiralty; wherein he says, "his majesty expressed great displeasure at the insult offered to the court-martial, by which the military discipline of the navy is so much affected; and the king highly disapproves of the behaviour of lieutenant Frye on the occasion. His majesty has it under consideration what steps may be adviseable to be taken on this incident." The lords commissioners of the admiralty, as well as the secretary of state, had not been properly informed of the very great authority of the lord chief justice of the common pleas, who, as soon as he heard of the resolutions of the court-martial, caused each individual member to be taken into custody, and was proceeding in legal measures to assert and maintain the authority of his office, when a stop was put to the process, by the following submission (signed by the president and all the members of the court) being sent to lord chief justice Willes.

"As nothing is more becoming a gentleman, than to acknowledge himself to be in the wrong, as soon as he is sensible he is so, and to be ready to make satisfaction to any person he has injured; we therefore, whose names are underwritten, being thoroughly convinced that we were entirely mistaken in the opinion we had conceived of lord chief justice Willes, think ourselves obliged in honour, as well as justice, to make him satisfaction as far as it is in our power. And, as the injury we did him was of a public nature, we do, in this public manner, declare, That we are now satisfied the reflections cast upon him in our resolutions of the 16th and 21st of May last, were unjust, unwarrantable, and without any foundation whatsoever; and we do ask pardon of his lordship, and of the court of common pleas, for the indignity offered both to him and the court." This paper was dated the 10th of November, was received in the court of common pleas on the 14th, and ordered to be inrolled. A memorial, as the lord

chief justice then said, to present and future ages, that whoever set themselves up in opposition to the laws, or think themselves above the law, will, in the end, find themselves mistaken. Thus ended this extraordinary affair.*

The remarks upon the trial of admiral Matthews, 1746, deserve notice.

‘ We shall conclude this disagreeable affair, by observing, that on considering the whole of the management of the British fleet under admiral Matthews, during the time it was in sight of the enemy, we may perceive the imperfect, but well-intended, endeavours of a man involved in a business, of which he was by no means master; at the same time that he seems to have been wrapped up in a vain confidence of his own abilities, the inseparable companion of presumption and ignorance. Both the other flag-officers appear to have been inclined to act their parts with propriety: and they did their duty well. The vice-admiral, in particular, shewed a zeal and attention which gives a very advantageous idea of his capacity as a seaman and officer. It is to be wished that something favourable could also be said of the captains in general; many of whom certainly did their duty with courage and conduct: others, no doubt, deserved all the blame which was laid to their charge: yet it is very difficult to judge of the degree of criminality which was imputable to each, when disorder and uncertainty seemed to pervade the whole.’

As Voltaire's writings are in the hands of every one, we must not omit the following paragraph, from vol. i. p. 311.

‘ With regard to the second destination of this little army*, it has been greatly misrepresented by an historian who has obtained a great character from the world in general. A well informed officer, of high rank in the army, has rightly observed on the facility with which we are misled by great writers, and on the readiness with which we imbibe their notions without examination. Most readers believed, that Voltaire's history was composed of facts; but we find, that in his relations he is more singular than authentic, more credulous than well informed, and that he cannot quite lose the poet in the historian. We admire his talents; but we should not overlook his errors, which are many and notorious. His column at the battle of Fontenoy is a chimera; though a chimera generally received as a reality among his countrymen. But of all the misrepresentations with which his history is filled, there are none so gross, so ridiculous, or so injurious to the British nation, as those which are contained in his account of the descent

* At first intended to be sent against the capital of Canada, under the command of general St. Clair, an officer of experience and abilities.

on the coast of Brittany. He is equally unacquainted with the destination of the expedition, the number of troops, the manner of the descent, the causes of its want of success, the reasons for the retreat, and the conduct observed in it. General St. Clair had with him, on this service, brigadier generals O'Farrel, Graham, and Richbell; and the justly celebrated philosopher and historian, David Hume, esq; was his secretary. After the troops had remained at Spithead near six weeks, the ministry came to the resolution of employing them, by making an immediate descent on the coast of Brittany.'

To enliven our extracts we shall present our readers with some anecdotes from vol. i. p. 338. They refer to the action in 1747, between lord Anson and M. de la Jonquierre.

' The spirit with which the British captain's fought, cannot be better evinced, than from the following fact:—When the Bristol began to engage the Invincible, captain Fincher, in the Pembroke, endeavoured to get in between her and the enemy; but not finding room enough so to do, captain Fincher hailed the Bristol, and requested captain Montagu to put his helm astarboard, or the Pembroke would run foul of his ship: to this captain Montagu replied, " Run foul of me, and be d—d; neither you nor any man in the world shall come between me and my enemy."

' When the Devonshire and Bristol had fairly silenced the Invincible, Captain Montague ordered his sails to be set, and went on to a fresh attack, cheering his gallant crew, by saying, in the sportsman style, " Come, my brave boys, we must have another bird of them."

" The subsequent observations on the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle close the first volume.

' The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle had for its basis, a general confirmation of all preceding treaties; from that of Westphalia downward; and for its immediate object, as the means of a general pacification, a mutual restitution of all conquests made since the beginning of the war, with a release of all prisoners without ransom. Even in this there was a great partiality shewn to France.

' Great Britain trusted to the honour of his most christian majesty, in restoring the city of Madras and its dependencies; but equal confidence was not reposed by his most christian majesty, in British faith: for it was stipulated, that two noblemen should be sent to France as hostages, for the delivering up of Louisburg and its dependencies; and there to remain, until such time as authentic accounts arrived of the French being in possession of it.

' The duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, were ceded

as a sovereignty, to the infant Don Philip, and the heirs male of his body; but it was stipulated, that, in case he, or his descendants, should succeed to the crown of Spain, or that of the Two Sicilies, or die without male-issue, those territories shall return to the present possessors, the empress-queen of Hungary, and the king of Sardinia, or their descendants.

‘The treaty of the Affiento, signed at Madrid, the 27th of March, 1713, with the privilege of the annual ship, were confirmed, during the reversionary term of four years, from which it had been suspended by the war. Dunkirk to remain fortified on the land-side, in its present state; and on the side towards the sea, on the footing of ancient treaties.

‘All the contracting powers guaranteed to his Prussian majesty, the dutchy of Silesia, and the county of Glatz. And such of the same powers as had guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction of the emperor Charles VI. for securing to his daughter, the present empress-queen of Hungary and Bohemia, the undivided succession of the house of Austria; renewed the same, in the most solemn manner, with the exception of the cessions made by this and former treaties.

‘But, the grand matter which had been the occasion of this bloody and expensive war,—the right of British ships to navigate the American seas without being searched, was not so much as mentioned. And our unquestionable right to the province of Nova Scotia, called by the French Acadia, was to be left to the discussion of commissaries to be named for that purpose. This last article, not being properly discussed and settled, was productive of another bloody war.’

As we have rather exceeded our limits, in the number of extracts from the first volume, we shall confine ourselves as much as possible in speaking of the two last.

(To be continued.)

A Concordance of Parallels, collected from Bibles and Commentaries which have been published in Hebrew, Latin, French, Italian, Spanish, English, and other Languages, with the Authorities of each. By the rev. C. Crutwell. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Robinson. 1799.

THE design of this laborious work is explained by the author “to collect all the passages in the Old and New Testament, supposed to have any relation to each other, so as to form a *Concordance of Parallels*, which may exhibit in one view the frequency of repetition and variety of expression of the same subject, as the frequency of repetition and variety of situation of the same word is exhibited in ordinary

Concordances; and which may serve as a Concordance to the Bible in any language."

In other words, the parallelisms adduced by different authors, in their different editions or translations of the Bible, are brought together; and, though some of the parallelisms are imaginary, or rest on the credit of different authors, *all* are preserved. The letters added to each set of parallelisms point out the name of each commentator; and the explanation occurs in the beginning of the work.

In the greater number of these conjectures, however, he is supported by preceding commentators; but many are his own; and the most striking specimen of his own labours occurs in the 20th chapter of Exodus: these references form of themselves a short comment on the Decalogue. This may be called the key to the whole performance. On opening the volume, which consists of 532 pages, we are presented with such numerous abbreviations, marks and figures, that it requires no contemptible share of fortitude to encounter a regular examination. This, however, we have performed in a sufficient degree to pronounce that the editor has not spared his labour in collating all those passages in both the Testaments which the most ingenious fancies have ever imagined to have any reference to each other. His performance may, no doubt, be of use to the purpose for which it is designed, and merits a place in the learned library. The editor too claims the praise of toilsome accuracy and painful perseverance: it is said to be the work of seven years constant application.

A Statement of Facts, in Answer to Mrs. Gunning's Letter, addressed to his Grace the Duke of Argyll. By Capt. Bowen. 8vo. 2s. Debrett. 1791.

IN our review of Mrs. Gunning's Letter to the Duke of Argyll [Argyle], we hinted an opinion, that the darkness which then enveloped the subject of her pamphlet would probably be soon dispelled by some future discovery. That period is now arrived, and the *denouement* of the whole affair is candidly made public in the Statement of Facts now before us. The character of Mr. and Mrs. Bowen had been so indecently aspersed by Mrs. Gunning in the Letter above mentioned, that they resolved to vindicate themselves by recourse to a legal prosecution; and for this purpose took the advice of counsel, namely, Messrs. Erskine, Campbell, and Tonblanque. The opinion delivered by these gentlemen is highly judicious; and in consequence of it, Mr. Bowen submits to the public a plain and simple detail of the whole transaction relative to miss Gun-

ning, so far as he and Mrs. Bowen can give any information on the subject.

It now clearly appears, that miss Gunning's pretended correspondence, concerning a proposal of marriage with the marquis of B. was entirely fabricated. What has unravelled the mystery, is the letter to general Gunning under the signature of the duke of Marlborough. The original of this spurious letter, it seems, was sent by miss Gunning to Mr. Bowen, with the request that he would do her the favour to copy it, for a particular purpose; but neither her father nor mother were to know any thing of the affair. Mr. Bowen, to oblige her, complied with her request; but upon a report of the fictitious correspondence prevailing, it was thought proper to communicate the affair to general Gunning, whom Mr. and Mrs. Bowen requested to see, for that purpose, on Tuesday the 8th of February. The following is Mr. Bowen's account of what passed on this occasion:

' About seven o'clock that evening general Gunning went to Mr. Bowen's—Captain and Mrs. Bowen were at home. After the usual compliments, captain Bowen asked general Gunning if he had received a letter from the duke of Marlborough? to which the general answered he had. Captain Bowen then produced a paper, asking general Gunning if the contents were any thing like the letter he had received from the duke of Marlborough? On reading over the same, general Gunning expressed great surprise, and said it seemed to him to be exactly the same; but luckily he had the duke's letter in his pocket, which he immediately produced. On seeing the envelope, captain Bowen did not express any surprise; but, upon opening the letter, he immediately said that he wrote that very letter as a copy, which he had sent to miss Gunning, and observed, he had written the word "Copy" at the top, and the word "Signed" opposite the signature, and that if general Gunning would hold it up to the light, erasures must appear—which were evident: and captain Bowen shewed to general Gunning miss Gunning's letter received by Mrs. Bowen on the Tuesday before, and likewise gave into his possession the two other letters Mrs. Bowen had received from his daughter, which general Gunning was satisfied were his daughter's writing.'

For the satisfaction of our readers, it will likewise be necessary that we lay before them the affidavit of William Pearce, who was the servant entrusted by general Gunning to carry his letter to the duke of M.

' William Pearce, groom to general Gunning, aged fifty, or thereabouts, maketh oath and faith that a packet and a letter
were

were delivered to him by general Gunning, on the morning of the day on which he was directed by general Gunning to go to the duke of Marlborough's, and that he was directed to carry them to the duke of Marlborough's at Blenheim; that immediately after the packet and letter had been so delivered to this deponent by general Gunning, Hannah Hales, who was at that time miss Gunning's maid, came to this deponent, and requested him to go to miss Gunning; that he accordingly went to miss Gunning, who was then in her bed-chamber; that it was about ten o'clock in the morning; that miss Gunning met this deponent at the door of her room, and said you are going to the duke of Marlborough's.—That this deponent answered, yes.—That then miss Gunning said to this deponent, you must not go; that this deponent answered and said, miss Gunning, it is a matter of trust—I must perform my trust—upon which Miss Gunning said, I would not have you go for five thousand pounds: and that she insisted upon his not going, time after time, and said, that the business he was going upon was concerning a letter, which she had had two or three days—And that she knew what the paper was which he had from her papa, and that it was of her own hand-writing. And this deponent saith, that miss Gunning desired him to leave the papers which had been delivered to him by general Gunning with her, which she many times insisted on. And this deponent saith, he went down stairs and brought the papers which he had received from general Gunning, and delivered them into miss Gunning's own hand.—That when the witness had delivered the papers which he had received from general Gunning to miss G. she delivered to him a letter, which she said was a letter from the duke of Marlborough, and which she told this deponent she had opened and sealed it again, with the duke of Marlborough's arms.—And this deponent saith, that he hath looked at the papers now produced, and shewn to him this deponent, at the time of swearing this his affidavit, marked with the letter (A) being the cover of a letter; and that these words and figure “General Gunning, St. James' Place, London, February 3d” wrote thereon, are, as this deponent verily believes, of the same hand-writing as the direction of the letter, which miss Gunning delivered to him; and that this deponent particularly observed the day of the month written upon the said cover, and that he verily believes the said cover so shewn to him to be the same which was delivered to this deponent by the said miss Gunning. And this deponent further saith, that miss Gunning ordered him to go out of town, and to stay such time as he thought he ought to take in going to and returning from the duke of Marlborough's; and upon his return, to deliver the letter which she gave him to general Gunning. And this deponent further saith, that he, this deponent, went out of town to *Twicken-*

ham, and returned to town the next day between 9 and 10 o'clock at night. That upon his return to town, William Corrie, the ostler of the livery stables where his master's horses stand, delivered to him a note or letter; and that *this deponent hath looked at the note or letter * now produced* and shewn to him at the time of swearing this his affidavit, marked with the letter (B). *And this deponent saith, that he believes the same is the note which was so delivered to him by the said William Corrie as aforesaid.* And this deponent saith, that he carried the letter which miss Gunning had given him as aforesaid, and which she had directed him to deliver to general Gunning, to his master's, general Gunning's house. That his master was not at home, but that this deponent delivered it to Thomas Walkis, his master's valet. And this deponent saith, that the day before his master found it out, that is, before his master had discovered that this deponent had not been at the duke of Marlborough's, miss Gunning overtook this deponent in Piccadilly in her father's carriage, and that she called him to the door of the carriage, and said to him, you must stand to it, and if you are called upon, you must say you will take your oath of it, or used words to that or the like effect. And this deponent saith, he understood miss Gunning to mean by such words as aforesaid, that if this deponent was asked about the letter which he delivered to general Gunning's valet as aforesaid, he, this deponent, should say that he received that letter from the duke of Marlborough. And this deponent says, that John Dean, footman to general Gunning, was behind the carriage at the time above mentioned; and that the said John mentioned to him after he came home, that he had heard what miss Gunning said to him, this deponent, from the carriage. And that the the said John Dean told this deponent, that he, John, had afterwards stopped the carriage, and spoke to miss Gunning about the matter. And that the said John Dean told this deponent, that he, John, might be brought into as great premunire as this deponent; that he expected it, and looked for it; that this deponent understands John to have meant something about a note which miss Gunning had sent by John to Mrs. Bowen, and that he so understands, from a conversation which he afterwards had with some of the servants of general Gunning. And this deponent saith, that he has never seen miss Gunning since she left her father's house; but that in the course of the last week, Hannah Hales, whom this deponent believes is the servant of miss Gunning, came to general Gunning's house, between 6 and 7 o'clock in the evening, and said she wanted to speak with this deponent, and that she pulled a paper

* Copy of the note or letter B. — "William, you must tell papa, when you give him the Duke's letter, that his Grace sent his compliments, and that he would return the papers when he had done with them." — On the outside, "For William."

out of her pocket which she said miss Gunning desired her to give to this deponent to read; and that this deponent read the same two or three times, and that to the best of this deponent's recollection the contents of the paper were, that if this deponent would take his oath that he had not delivered the papers which had been delivered to him by general Gunning, as before is mentioned, to miss Gunning, that she would settle twenty pounds a year on him for life, and that he might go to Wales, or where he pleased, and that she would pay him quarterly: that this deponent told the said Hannah Hales he would not do any such thing for all the world, and desired her to tell miss Gunning that he would do no such thing; and Hannah Hales then said to this deponent, that she had before told her mistress so. And this deponent saith, when he had read the paper, which he did two or three times, he returned it to Hannah Hales, who refused to let this deponent keep the same, and said she was ordered not. And this deponent saith, he believes that the paper shewn to him by Hannah Hales was miss Gunning's hand writing, he this deponent having often seen her hand writing; but that it appeared to this deponent to have been written fast. And this deponent saith, that he never was at captain Bowen's house, and that he does not know Mr. or Mrs. Bowen if he was to see them, and that he does not know where captain Bowen lives.'

Other affidavits, establishing this transaction, and exclusive of that of Mr. Bowen, are likewise subjoined.—On the whole, it does not particularly appear what share Mrs. Gunning had in the plot; the infatuated young lady is the ostensible agent; and we regret that it has produced so fatal a catastrophe.

Sketches chiefly relating to the History, Religion, Learning, and Manners, of the Hindoos. With a concise Account of the Present State of the Native Powers of Hindostan. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell. 1790.

THIS is the work of a very ingenious and philosophical mind, aided by personal experience and observation. Whilst other writers have employed themselves in describing the successive exploits of European and Mahomedan conquerors in the conquest of Hindostan, this writer directs his researches to the origin of its inhabitants, and its interior history: an investigation which he pursues with singular acuteness and felicity. Though his modesty has induced him to denominate his work by the humble appellation of *Sketches*, it contains more real information than any other we have ever met with of the same size, and bears every mark of authenticity.

In his Sketch of the 'Sources of Information concerning Hindostan' he demonstrates the superior antiquity of that country even to the remotest ages of Egypt; and proves that it excelled as a civilised and polished people, long before any other nation that we are acquainted with.

'It is said to have acknowledged the dominion of one mighty sovereign: but that in this immense empire there were several hereditary kings, who paid him a certain tribute, though they, in the internal government of their countries, were independent.

'One of the ancient dynasties of their emperors is called the Sourage-buns, or the dynasty of the children of the sun; the other the Chander-buns, or that of the children of the moon.

'After these we hear of the house of Bhharat; and the wars between two of its branches, the Kooros and the Pandoos, are the subject of a celebrated epic poem, called the Mahabharat, said to have been written by Kreshna Dwypayen Veias, a learned bramin, above 4000 years ago. A famous battle, fought on the plains of Delhy, at the beginning of Kaly-Young, or the present age, 3102 years before Christ, gave, to Arjoon, one of the five sons of Pandoo, and favourite of the god Vishnou, the empire of Bhāratvirsh, or Hindostan.

'About 1600 years before Christ, a war with the Persians is recorded: and about 900 years after that, another is mentioned during which the Hindoo emperor is said to have been carried prisoner into Persia, and his son, who succeeded him, to have become tributary to the kings of that country. The tribute having been withheld by the second Phoor or Porus, is assigned as the cause of the invasion of India by Alexander. Some Hindoo writers mention the victory obtained by him over Phoor, and say that he quitted Hindostan on account of a mutiny in his army.'

'The rapid expedition of Alexander scarce produced any other change in Hindostan, than what arose from the pillage of some of its towns; and the destructions of some thousands of its inhabitants. But the invasions of the Mogul Tartars overturned the Hindoo empire, and, besides the calamities that immediately attend conquest, fixed on succeeding generations a lasting train of miseries. They brought along with them the spirit of a haughty superstition, they exacted the conversion of the vanquished, and they came to conquer, and to remain. The success of the first invaders invited many to follow them; but we may consider the expedition of Tamerlane as that which completed the ruin of the Hindoo government. Having, in the year 1398, sent his son Mirza Pir Mahomed before him, he entered India himself, relieved Mirza, who had taken, but was afterwards shut up in Moulton, defeated the armies of the Mahomedan king of Delhy, and made himself master of his capital. Wherever he appeared he was victorious,

rious, neither Mussulman nor Hindoo could resist his fortune, neither in the field, nor in towns; nor could any one who opposed him expect his mercy.

‘ He marked the march of his army with blood, from the banks of the Attock to the eastern side of the Ganges, and from thence back by a different route, he returned to Samarcand.

‘ The disappearance of this angry meteor, was followed by a long scene of warfare among the Mahomedan invaders themselves; and the first of the descendants of Tamerlane who may be said to have firmly established himself on the throne of Delhy, was Acbar. He succeeded his father Homaon in 1566, and died in 1605, after a successful reign of about fifty years. He considerably extended the dominion of the Mahomedans, and was the first of their princes who regularly divided the empire into Soubadaries, or viceroyships, some of which were equal in extent to the largest European kingdoms. Over each of these he appointed a soubadar, or viceroy. The soubadaries were again divided into provinces, governed by naibs, or nabobs, who, though subject to the soubadar, had, however, the privilege of immediately corresponding with the emperor’s minister; the decision of civil causes belonged to the Cadi; the revenues and expences were inspected by a person appointed from the court; and the government of the principal forts was confided to officers who were independent of the viceroy.’

· Such has been the policy of European settlers, that we find

‘ All that now belongs to Shaw Allum, the present nominal emperor of Hindostan, is the city of Delhy, and a small district round it, where, even deprived of sight by the barbarous hand of a rebel, he remains an empty shadow of royalty, an instance of the instability of human greatness, and of the precarious state of despotic governments.’

· The fourth Sketch comprehends the government, public buildings, forts, and places of the residence of the rajahs. Under this head we learn that

‘ The government throughout Hindostan seems to have been anciently, as it is now, feudal; and if we may judge from the apparently happy state of those countries where the destructive hand of the conqueror has not yet been felt, and from the inviolable attachment which the Hindoos bear to their princes, we must conclude, that, under their native sovereigns, they were governed on principles of the most just and benevolent policy. In those countries the lands were highly cultivated; the towns and their manufactures flourish; the villages were composed of neat and commodious habitations, and filled with cheerful inhabitants; and where-
ever

ever the eye turned, it beheld marks of the mild protection of the government, and of the ease and industry of the people. Such was Tanjore, and some other provinces, not many years ago.

‘ Under the government of the Hindoo emperors, there were several kings or great rajahs, who were immediately subordinate to the emperor; and other inferior rajahs, or nobles, who paid tribute to their respective superiors, and who, when summoned to the field, were obliged to attend them, with a certain number of men in arms, in proportion to the value of their possessions. Besides the estates of the rajahs, there were other hereditary lands belonging to persons of less note, and some that were appropriated to charitable and religious purposes. We likewise find, that in many parts of Hindostan, certain lands or commons were attached to the different villages, which were cultivated by the joint labours of their inhabitants. The care of these lands was committed to the elders of the village, and their produce applied to assist such of the community as stood in need of it, to defray the expence of festivals, and to pay dancers and players, who might occasionally be employed for the amusement of the villagers.

‘ The ryuts, or peasants, were allowed a certain portion of the harvest, by the lord or proprietor of the land, with which they maintained their families, provided and kept their cattle, and were furnished with the seed for the succeeding season. The portion given to the peasant seems to have varied, and to have been chiefly determined by the fertility or barrenness of the soil, the ease or difficulty of cultivation, or the abundance or failure of the harvest.’

The following description of the pagoda at Seringham throws at a vast distance the most magnificent temples of European structure, and indeed all others recorded in history.

‘ About a mile from the western extremity of the island of Seringham, and at a small distance from the bank of the Coleroon, stands the celebrated pagoda. It is composed of seven square inclosures, one within the other, and standing at 350 feet parallel distance from each other. The walls are of stone and mortar, and twenty-five feet high: every inclosure has four large gateways, with a high tower over them, one being in the centre of each side, and opposite to the four cardinal points. The outward gateway to the south is richly ornamented with pillars, some of which are single stones 33 feet long, and 5 in diameter, and those that form the roof of the gateway, which is flat, are still larger. The pagoda is consecrated to Vishnou, and in the inner inclosure are the altars and the image of that deity. The brahmans who belong

belong to the pagoda are very numerous, and with their families are said to amount to some thousands of souls.

During the struggles between the English and French nations for superiority in the Carnatic, and in support of the Mahomedan viceroys, whose cause they respectively espoused, the repose of the brahmans was disturbed, and their temple profaned; it was alternately taken possession of by the French and English armies. When those rude intruders first attempted to enter it, a brahman who stood on the top of the outer gateway, after having in vain supplicated them to desist, rather than be a witness of such pollution, threw himself on the pavement below, and dashed out his brains. As the first inclosure afforded room more than sufficient for their reception, at the intreaties of the brahmans they did not proceed any farther.

About half a mile east from this pagoda is another called Jumbookishna. When the French, who, with their ally Chunda Saib, had been for some time shut up in those two pagodas, surrendered them to Mr. Laurence in June 1752, a thousand rajahpout seapoys refused to march out of Seringham until assured that their conquerors would not pass beyond the third inclosure, declaring they would die to a man in defending the passage to it: but Mr. Laurence, admiring their courage, and respecting their devotion, far from giving them offence, ordered that none should go beyond the second.

Speaking of the devotees that abound in this country, our author gives us some surprising instances of superstition.

I saw one of the latter, who having made a vow to keep his arms constantly extended over his head, with his hands clasped together, they were become withered and immoveable. Not long ago, one of them finished measuring the distance between Benares and Jaggernaut with his body, by alternately stretching himself upon the ground and rising; which, if he performed it as faithfully as he pretended, must have taken some years to accomplish. Some make vows to keep their arms crossed over their breasts for the rest of their days, others to keep their hands for ever shut, and their nails are sometimes seen growing through the back of their hand; and some are chained to a particular spot, and others never lie down, but sleep leaning against a tree.

There are frequent instances of devotees and penitents throwing themselves under the wheels of their chariots of Sheevah or Vishnou, when the idol is drawn out to celebrate the feast of a temple, and being thereby crushed to death: and not long since we saw an account of the aged father of a numerous offspring, who devoted himself to the flames to appease the wrath of a divinity, who, as he imagined, had for some time past afflicted his family with a mortal epidemical disease.

The religion of the Hindoos appears mild and tolerant in a most eminent degree.

‘Far from disturbing those who are of a different faith, by endeavours to convert them, the Hindoos cannot even admit any proselytes; and that, notwithstanding the exclusion of others, and though tenacious of their own doctrines, they neither hate nor despise, nor pity, such as are of a different belief, nor do they think them less favoured by the Supreme Being than themselves. They say, that if the author of the universe preferred one religion to another, that only could prevail which he approved; because to suppose such preference, while we see so many different religions, would be the height of impiety, as it would be supposing injustice towards those that he left ignorant of his will; and they therefore conclude, that every religion is peculiarly adapted to the country and people where it is practised, and that all, in their original purity, are equally acceptable to God.’

Nothing can be more sublime than their ideas of the Supreme Being.—We are sorry we have not room to insert part of a beautiful hymn to *Narayna*, translated by sir William Jones, which the reader will find at p. 140.

Their rules of morality too are most benevolent; and hospitality and charity are not only strongly inculcated, but are nowhere more universally practised than amongst the Hindoos, as appears by the following extract from their sacred laws.

‘Hospitality is commanded to be exercised even towards an enemy, when he cometh into thine house: the tree doth not withdraw its shade even from the wood-cutter.

‘Good men extend their charity unto the vilest animals. The moon doth not withhold her light even from the cottage of the Chandala [outcast].

‘Is this one of us, or is he a stranger?—Such is the reasoning of the ungenerous: but to those, by whom liberality is practised, the whole world is but as one family.’

(*To be continued.*)

The Loufiad, a Heroi-Comic Poem. Canto III. By Peter Pindar, Esquire. 4to. 2s. 6d Evans. 1791.

AS a fine lady, in a full dress, is the least part of herself; so the little animal—‘a familiar beast to man, that signifies ‘love*,’ is the smallest part of the present subject. But since the time of Homer, and the ‘*Nescio quid majus Iliade*,’ Ofsian of *more* heroic memory, episodes have been allowed to constitute a great part of an Epic Poem; so that we travel westward with majesty, and attend to distant hints and allu-

* Merry Wives of Windsor.

sions, which we doubt not some future critic will carefully elucidate, without turning to Aristotle, which with great care we had placed at our elbow, *in case of accidents*.

The poem, in this book, makes somewhat greater progress than the Iliad in many parts, at least equally extensive; and we know not, humble followers as we are of the great Scriblerus, on what code we can found our objections to it. We must wait with patience for the conclusion; but, whether the little beast alluded to, is placed in the Crown Imperial, or humbly nestles in the Wool Sack, is yet a mystery to all but the descendant of the Theban bard. Discord, in different shapes, urges on the direful deed, and seemingly excites the cooks to opposition; but in the last attempt he fails. Instead of the savage bull, with steady eye, and levelled horn, ready to meet opposition, these heroes wait the blow in timid expectation, and in the fulness of our commiseration, we almost exclaim with Ovid—'Quid meruistis?' We hope, however, the remainder of this Epic will not long be delayed; for unsatisfied curiosity becomes almost as listless as the 'Conviva satur.'—We shall select a specimen or two.

' Now Silence in the country stalk'd the dews,
As if she wore a flannel pair of shoes,
Lone list'ning, as the poets well remark,
To falling mill-streams, and the mastiff's bark;
To loves of wide-mouth'd cats, most mournful tales;
To hoot of owls amid the dusky vales,
To hum of beetles, and the bull-frog's snore,
The spectre's shriek, and ocean's drowzy roar.—
Lull'd was each street of London to repose,
Save where it echo'd to a Watchman's nose;
Or where a Watchman, with ear-piercing rattle,
Rous'd his brave brothers from each box to battle!
To fall upon the Cynthias of the night,
Sweet nymphs! whose sole profession is delight!
Thus the gaunt wolves the tender lambs pursue,
And hawks, in blood of doves, their beaks imbrue!
Thus on the flies of evening rush the bats,
And mastiffs sally on the am'rous cats!'

' Still was the Palace, save where some poor fly,
With thirst just ready to drop down and die,
Buzz'd faint petitions to his Maker's ear,
To shew him one small drop of dead small beer;
Save where the cat, for mice, so hungry, watching,
Swore the lean animals were scarce worth catching;
Save where the dog so gaunt, in grumbling tone,
By dreams deluded, mouth'd a mutton bone;

Save where, with throats to sounds of horror strain'd,
 Crickets of coughs and rheumatisms complain'd,
 Lamenting fore, amid a Royal hold,
 "How hard that crickets should be kill'd by cold!

Those of our readers, who understand the Devonshire dialect better than ourselves, may probably be entertained by John Ploughshare's Ode, descriptive of the King's Journey to Exeter; but we suspect that the number would not be considerable. We shall prefer, therefore, the following lines, which are in the true style of the Mock-Heroic.

'Now did the Major hum a tune so sad!
 Chromatic—in the robes of sorrow clad:
 But lo! the ballad could not fear controul,
 Nor exorcise the Barbers from his soul:
 And now his lifted eyes the cieling fought;
 And now he whistled—not for want of thought.
 A mournful air the whistling Major chose:
 Still on his rolling eye the razors rose.
 From grave to sprightly now he chang'd—a jig—
 Still o'er his haunted fancy wav'd the wig;
 Still saw his eye alarm'd, the Scratch abhor'd,
 Like wild Macbeth's, the visionary sword.—
 Thus, from what Kings, alas! may fancy fun,
 His loving subjects may be glad to run:
 Thus, wher Saint Swithen from his fountain pours;
 Saint Swithen, tutelary faint of show'rs;
 Beaux skip, belles scamper, fly the cocks and hens,
 With drooping plumage, to the shelt'ring pens;
 While lo! the waddling ducks *Tu Deum* utter,
 Flap their glad wings, and gabble through the gutter.'

FOREIGN ARTICLE.

Histoire de l'Academie Royale des Sciences, Année 1786, avec les Memoires de Mathematique & de Physique pour la meme Année.
 4to. Paris.

AMIDST the commotions of the French nation, literature and science, as well as agriculture and commerce, must for a time suffer. It is at present, we apprehend, in contemplation to annihilate the Royal Society of Medicine, and that of the 'Sciences' may share the same fate. We do not apologize therefore for having delayed those parts of their works which remain, or feel a reluctance to do what we shall do no more. Whatever may be the events of the impending contests, it will be long before

fore that devoted kingdom can recover sufficient leisure and tranquillity to resume the labours in which she has so long excelled. But we must not indulge reflections of this kind.

This volume is introduced by the second and third report of the commissioners relative to the new plan of establishing four hospitals. The attention of the commissioners, sent to England to enquire into the police of the hospitals in this kingdom, we have witnessed with our own eyes, and their report shows that they have judged with propriety of what they have examined with so much attention. Their observations will, we trust, be found of great importance in the new reform; and, while we praise the use they have made of the observations, we must, in the name of the nation, thank them for their attention, their profound respect, and the grateful sense which they express of the civilities shown them in this kingdom.

M. Monnier had charged M. le Valois to examine the inclination of the magnetic needle in the Ethiopian seas. Unfortunately this navigator died in his return, having sent only one letter from Mocha, in which he mentions that he had observed the inclination to be $10^{\circ}\frac{1}{4}$ at Cochin, and 9° at Mahe; each was northerly. From this observation M. Monnier concludes, that one of the most certain methods of discovering the intersection of the magnetic, with the terrestrial meridian, is to multiply observations in the Ethiopic Ocean, near to Africa, as the node is probably found in those countries, which Europeans rarely visit; and, of course, it will be difficult to fix it, but by approximations.

An observation of M. Roziere's appears both singular and curious. Having suspended two bars of common iron, one in the magnetic meridian, and another perpendicular to it, for many months neither appeared magnetic; but after an earthquake in Dauphiny, whose direction was evidently from east to west, the observer found that the bar placed in the same meridian had sensibly become magnetic, and the north pole was, on the western extremity, a little weaker in its power than the other extremity. The other bar was not affected. Two observations of meteors, by the same author, follow; one of which was a parafelene, attended with a halo, marked by the colours of the rainbow.

The usual eloges, &c. follow; but they are not of importance. May not M. Guettard, the subject of one of these eloges, be allowed to characterise them? Let us select the anecdote with the remark. His harsh and peculiar style disgusted many readers, and it could not be unknown to him that he had very few readers. 'This idea, which frequently occurred to him, was one of the causes of his peculiar humour, and the only one that

did not result from his virtues; from his aversion to intrigue, an aversion which made him suspect it where it did not exist; and from a love of justice and veracity, as easily hurt as the most favourite passion. This last opinion made him consider *all* eloges, and *even academical eloges*, as fictions.' "You are going to tell a fine parcel of lies," said he to me often at our sessions; and he added — "when you speak of me, please to tell the truth." We trust this request has not been forgotten in the composition of his life, and during the reading; but we own it is too much like the others, not to occasion us to suspect the marquis of a little forgetfulness.

These observations are what are placed in the room of the usual abstract of the memoirs. The first memoir is a description of a new genus of plants by M. Foujeroux de Bondaroy. It comes from Louisiana, and flowers from the middle of July to the end of October. Its place is among the syngenesiæ polygamix frustanæ, and, as it bears the climate (of France) well, if it can be rendered double by culture, it will supersede the China-aster. Our author calls it Gaillardia, from M. Gaillard, and distinguishes it by the trivial name of pulchella. It appears in the plate to be a beautiful shrubby plant, with numerous flowers.

The second memoir is by M. le Gendre, on the method of distinguishing the maxima from the minima, where the question does not admit of an absolute maximum or minimum, as in the observations on curvature. This memoir is singularly ingenious and well conducted.

M. Fourcroy's second memoir on the tendons and the capsules of the tendons follows, and relates to the mucous capsules proper to the tendons, which slide on the inferior extremities of the fore arm, and are attached to the carpus, metacarpus, and the phalanges.

The same author has also communicated an essay on the formation and properties of hepatic gas, which deserves much attention, though his reasoning will not meet with the approbation of every English chemist. Hepatic air we now know to be inflammable air holding sulphur in solution; and the history of opinions, which our author prefixes, we may pass over. The first fact of importance is the necessity of water in its composition. That liver of sulphur, made by melting, is not fœtid till it be moistened, we have been already told by M. Gengembre; and this remark our author supports by different observations and experiments: he finds that acids separate hepatic gas from the livers of sulphur, only in proportion to the water which they contain. The cause is not very clear: alkali, our author remarks, has a great tendency to unite with the sulphur, in the form of vitriolic acid; and this tendency, he thinks, induces that sulphur to attract the oxygen from the water, that it may become
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the wished-for ingredient. To convince the reader that the gas is formed in consequence of the decomposition of water various facts are added: we shall confine ourselves to the more direct proofs. One of these, M. Fourcroy observes, is the existence of vitriolic acid already formed in the hepars, from whence the smallest quantity of gas has been separated, 'for the water cannot be decomposed without its pure air uniting to the sulphur, forming the vitriolic acid, whilst its inflammable gas dissolves a portion of sulphur to form hepatic air.' In this way a moistened hepar yields, in a retort, much hepatic gas, and the remainder is sulphur and a vitriolic salt; of these the former may be sublimed when it is in excess. A similar vitriolic salt is conspicuous, when an earthy or an alkaline hepar is decomposed by the muriatic acid. In most instances, where the hepatic gas appears, the decomposition of water is, in M. Fourcroy's opinion, conspicuous; and, when lead and copper, metals incapable of decomposing water, seem to have the same effect, it is explained by the superior influence of many concurring affinities.

Many vegetables, it is remarked, exhale either in their natural state, or by the assistance of a slight heat, an hepatic gas, as is proved from their fætor, the colour they give to metals, and the impossibility of separating this combustible body by the simple acids. Scurvy-grass, cresses, horse-radish, garlic, and onions are vegetables of this kind, and, in different coleworts, the fætor of the water in which they are boiled shows that a similar principle exists, and that the sulphur decomposes the water. In boiling eggs also, and in every kind of putrefaction, the sulphur separates and forms with the water hepatic air. The hepatic gas is differently modified in different operations. Sometimes it is so fetid as to affect the respiration, and produce asphyxiæ, particularly in decomposing the antimoniated hepars, and precipitating the golden sulphurs. The heat required, in these instances, influences the decomposition of water and the solution of sulphur. When the menstruum is colder, the proportion of sulphur is less, and the fætor is more supportable. Another modification is the alliaceous, on which all the garlic smells depend. It is owing to the combination of this principle with oily matters, and may be imitated by dissolving sulphur, or perhaps the hepatic air in spirit of wine.

The third part of this essay relates to the union of hepatic gas with water, and its decomposition by air; but our author adds only some minute observations to what Bergman and Scheele had remarked, and explains the different facts according to his own system. The action of acids on the hepatic gas furnishes some observations more remarkable. It is singular, that the seeming nitrous acid, and the dephlogisticated muriatic acid only decom-

pose hepatic air; and our author shows that this is owing to the pure air being in these more loosely united than in others. M. Senebier found the vitriolic acid would have the same effect, but he decomposed hepatic air overcharged with sulphur. Some minute variations in the action of these different acids are described, and with these the article concludes.

M. Coulumb's fourth memoir on electricity is scarcely less ingenious than those which have preceded. The first property of the electrical fluid, which our author endeavours to demonstrate, in this place is, that it never pervades any body by a chemical affinity, or elective attraction, but spreads through different bodies, placed in contact, merely in consequence of its repulsive power: the second, that in conductors, the fluid, when stationary, is spread over the surface of bodies, and never penetrates to their internal parts. Perhaps it may not be useless to add, that in the former memoirs the particles of the electric fluid of the same kind were shown to be in a state of repulsion; those of the opposite kinds in a state of attraction; and their action was demonstrated to be in the inverse ratio of the squares of the distance: the attraction and repulsion of the magnetic fluid was found to follow the same law. In the third memoir, our author showed by what law the electric density of an isolated body decreased, either in consequence of the contact of air more or less moist, or from the idio-electric supports, when not sufficiently long; which was found to depend on the degree of idio-electricity of the supports, their greater or less affinity with watery vapours, the state of the air, the density of the electric fluid of the isolated body, and the bulk of that body.

The next memoir is by the abbé Haüy, on the structure of the rock crystal; but the mathematical disquisitions of this author, on the form of the integrant molecules, and his discovery of seeming laminæ in the fracture of a fossil, which has been styled glassy, and its structure considered as uniform, depends too much on the plates to enable us to follow him.

The two comets of 1786 are described by M. Messier. The first was observed on the 17th of January, near the left shoulder of Aquarius. It was discovered by M. Mechain; but our author saw it only on the 19th. The bad weather prevented him from seeing it again till it was too near the sun. The second comet was discovered by miss Herschel, on the first of August, and we have already given some account of it. Our author observed it at Paris from the 11th of August to the 11th of September, and at the Chateau of Saron, in Campagne, from the 16th of September to the 26th of October. M. Messier has subjoined his observations on the passage of Mercury over the Sun on the 4th of May 1786, with the observations on the same phenomenon at Upsal and at Louvain.

The memoir on iron, by M. M. Vandermonde, Berthollet, and Monge, is very extensive and important. Iron, they observe, either from different mixtures or different states, is so different, that chemists were for a time doubtful whether it was the same metal. The various substances with which it is occasionally united have been pointed out in different works, and occasionally in our Journal; but, even when unadulterated, it occurs in four different forms. It is brittle and fusible when it comes from the furnace; it is ductile and infusible when refined; by cementation it becomes capable of the hardest temper; and cementation carried too far renders it again fusible and intractable on the anvil. Each of these states the academicians attempt to explain in this memoir of 68 quarto pages, which is of itself almost a volume. We can only give the outline of their experiments and observations. Fusible iron, they observe, can only be considered as a regulus, whose reduction is incomplete, for, in solution, it gives out less inflammable air, decomposes less water, and, in calcining, absorbs less dephlogisticated air: besides the melted metal, when brown, whitens and refines, without addition or the contact of air, which they think is owing to its still retaining some pure air, that contributes to the combustion of charcoal, to which its brown colour was owing. The presence of this charcoal is proved by its power of cementing soft iron, and communicating sufficient phlogiston (charbon) to convert it into true steel; by the black residuum, found at the bottom of solutions of this iron in the vitriolic acid, made without heat, a residuum which has all the properties of charcoal. To the quantity of this charcoal the different hues of the iron are owing, and, by adding different proportions of it, any colour may be obtained. The steel, produced by cementation, is only iron perfectly reduced and combined, besides, with a certain proportion of phlogiston (charbon en nature). The existence of charcoal in steel, is they think proved, first, by the augmentation of the weight of the iron, when cemented in pure charcoal, deprived of gas. Secondly, by the coaly residuum steel of this kind leaves in acids. The metallic reduction seems to be pushed farther in steel than in soft iron, by the bubbles observable in steel, which proceed from fixed air, formed by the combination of the phlogiston (charbon) with pure air already in the iron.

Steel, too much cemented, differs from the former only by too great a proportion of coaly matter absorbed, as is proved by a greater proportion of weight, a more copious residuum of black matter, and by the necessity there is of increasing the power of all the agents which contribute to the cementation.

Iron, perfectly malleable, is a regulus in its most perfect state; but the softest iron on sale contains a little charcoal, and a little

pure air: the different proportions of these in different samples, show that the reduction is not always equally perfect.

Finally, coal, after being held in solution by melting or by steel in a state of fusion, and abandoned by the metal on cooling, attracts always a certain proportion of the metal, and this is the plumbago which separates from the metal; and, when the cooling is slow, swims on its surface, where it can be collected in its natural state. But, when the cooling is rapid, it is mixed with the metal giving it some of the qualities of steel. Such is nearly the system of our authors, which we have given in their own words, without noticing where it differs or where it agrees with the remarks of Bergman or Rinman. Their experiments are generally accurate, and their conclusions, almost in every instance, just. By attending to some of these experiments, it will be found easy to render the English iron as soft and malleable as the best Swedish iron, without infringing on any patents.

M. de la Place continues his theory of Jupiter and Saturn; his next memoir is 'on the secular equation' of the moon. From comparing the place of the moon, as it is ascertained by the Arabian and Chaldean astronomers, and indeed since the æra when astronomical observations have been made with accuracy, its motion seems to have been uniformly accelerated; and the correction, in consequence of this accelerated motion, is named the secular equation. Halley first observed it; but the equation seems to have been ascertained by M. Dunthorne, who made it for the first age 10 seconds. This quantity, in the calculation of different astronomers, has varied a little; but M. de la Lande fixes it at $9''.886$ for the first age. Our author thinks this acceleration of motion owing to the action of the sun on this satellite, combined with the variation of the excentricity of the earth's orbit. The attraction of the sun, counteracting the power of the earth, when the moon is between them, dilates the orbit of the earth's satellite, and produces a little retardation of its angular velocity. The orbit, on the contrary, is contracted when the sun is in its apogée. Hence arises the annual equation of the moon's motion, whose law is exactly the same as that of the equation of the center of the sun, with nearly the difference of a sign; so that one of these equations lessens when the other increases. The action of the sun on the moon varies also by insensible shades, in consequence of the alteration which the orbit of the earth experiences from the influence of the planets. Its excentricity, its inclination to a fixed plane, the position of its nodes, and its aphelion constantly vary. The mean force of the sun on the moon must alter with the variation of the excentricity of the terrestrial orbit; so that contrary variations must take place in the motion of the moon, analagous to the annual equation, but whose periods are very much longer, and comprehend many ages.

ages. This is the principal foundation of the lunar irregularities, which require the correction in this memoir. Thousands of years are required for its complete revolution; but our author has greatly assisted the Newtonian system, by investigating the cause, and reducing it, with the other phenomena, to the influence of gravity. His more particular calculations we must pass over. M. de la Lande's fifth memoir, on the theory of mercury, for the same reasons, we can only mention.

The tree, that affords the Japan varnish, was supposed by Linnæus to be the *rhus succedanea*; but M. des Fontaines, who has seen it in bloom, considers it as another genus, nearly allied to the sumachs, and he calls it *ailanthus*, as the Indian tree (*arbor celi* of Rumphius), seems to be a species of the same genus, and is distinguished by the natives by nearly the same name.

(To be continued.)

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

DIVINITY, RELIGIOUS, &c.

A Sermon setting forth the Duty of Obedience to those in Authority, and the Motives to persuade us to the Observance of it. 8vo. 1s. Scatcherd and Whitaker. 1790.

THIS Sermon is opposed to Dr. Price's, but seems to have been sent into the world in an 'evil hour,' and 'in evil days,' when innovations and revolutions engage every one's attention; when obedience is a subordinate consideration to the 'Rights of Man;' and the 'Rights of Kings' can scarcely claim a moment's attention. The Gospel of Christ, he thinks, was designed to draw the links of government closer, to enforce obedience, and establish subordination. In the proofs of his position, however, he fails; and, inimical as we have been supposed to civil liberty, we can allow, that the abuse of a prerogative is a sound argument for a prerogative being no longer admitted.

An Essay on Bigotry, Religious Innovation, and Infidelity, as respectively supported by Doctors Burke, Priestley, and Toulmin: in a Letter to John Mitford, Esq. By Falkland. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stalker. 1791.

This Essay, introduced with some compliments to Mr. Mitford on this truly benevolent bill in favour of the Catholics, proceeds to censure the intolerance of the church of England in her conduct to the Dissenters, and the religious spirit of Mr. Burke's celebrated Reflections. Falkland is the warm panegyrist of Dr. Price, but not equally favourable to Dr. Priestley, who is said to have stirred up unprofitable dissensions, and by refining on the

subtleties of Socinus, &c. probably to have weakened the influence of religion, without improving the system of morality. Dr. Toulmin is the hero of infidelity, and receives a severe chastisement on this account, and on his Brunonian heresy.

The language of this tract is peculiarly animated and energetic; it is not new to us; but while the author chuses to be concealed, it would be impertinent to attempt to draw off the veil. We shall conclude with a specimen of the spirit of his language and the force of his reasoning:

‘ The protesting Catholics, if I know their sentiments aright, dissent much more from the distinguishing tenets of their ancestors, than from those of the established church. Superior to hereditary absurdities, they remain in that communion because they were bred in it, and know that it contains enough for eternal life. They may still believe that in an Italian or even *Æcumenic* council, the bishop of Rome may with some justice claim precedence, as due to the seniority and maternity of his see. But that a Latian monk, the successor of a Borgia, should, with or without a council, affect divine infallibility, and assume the sovereign direction of the British hierarchy, is such an insult on common sense and our national dignity, as not only the protesting, but I trust every British and Irish Catholic will indignantly reject. Should Pius the Sixth lay the French under an interdict for their present glorious innovations in church and state, would the English Catholic think himself thereby in conscience obliged to break off all commerce with that nation? If he would, let no man pretend to say the pope has lost all his temporal influence in this country, while he has it in his power so far to deprive a commercial state of the industry of her Catholic subjects, many of whom rank among the most intelligent and opulent of our traders. But if he is not to be influenced by the fulmination of the Vatican, the last nerve of papal power even in spirituals, has been happily severed from this island. Every antipapal Catholic should be eager to avow it. Rank popery in an Englishman is equal treason against common sense and the independence of his native land. If any among us be yet weak enough to foster such a doctrine, let them be still doomed to merited disqualification. Let the new test for their more enlightened brethren be such as will prove a civil bar against those insatuated dupes of papism and superstition.’

The Spirit of all Religions, 8vo. 1s. Baldwin. 1790.

In our LXXth volume, p. 210. we reviewed a work entitled a *New System of Religion*: the same features characterise this little pamphlet; if not the same in another form, it is a scyon from the same stock, and deserving the same treatment.

Affect-

Affectionate Advice from a Minister of the Established Church to his Parishioners, upon the most plain and positive Duties of Religion; with some Cautions against the prevailing Spirit of Innovation. By the Rev. Sir Adam Gordon, Bart. M. A. 12mo. 1s. Stockdale. 1791.

This little system of religious advice is truly excellent, and it extends from the little decorums proper to be attended to during divine service, though too commonly neglected, to the higher and most important lessons of piety and morality. A life spent in inculcating such doctrines must be always recollected with the most heart-felt satisfaction.

An Essay concerning Tithes, as appertaining to the Clergy of the Church of England: recommended to the Consideration of the People called Quakers. By Robert Applegarth. 8vo. 2s. Richardson. 1791.

Mr. Applegarth was formerly a Quaker, though at present a member of the church of England. He has not, however, lost by his conversion, the cool good sense, or the mild persuasive eloquence of his former brethren. Tithes, he thinks, are due to the clergy, as they are appointed by the first magistrate to be instructors in religion, morality, and virtue: in short, the object of this Essay is, to 'vindicate the claims of the clergy, and point out to the Quakers the errors of such refusal.' We suspect, indeed, that the refusal is not common at this time: with a pretty extensive acquaintance among Quakers, we scarcely hear of it; for, if one person peculiarly obstinate occurs, his friends generally interpose.

The notes relate to some other tenets of the sect; among the rest, the refusal to take oaths. But we wish them not to change their opinions on this subject, while they pay a more strict attention to their affirmation than other Christians do to their oaths. It is remarkable, that William Penn's treaty with the Indians was the only convention not sworn to, and the only one inviolably observed.

Thoughts on such Penal Religious Statutes as affect the Protestant Dissenters; most respectfully submitted to the Consideration of the honourable Promoters of the Bill in favour of Protestant Roman Catholics. By William Parry. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1791.

The advocates for the repeal of the test laws, will, of course, feel their spirits revived by the repeal of some of the laws respecting Roman Catholics. Our author seems to be first in the lists; and he cites the different laws in force against the Dissenters, which he examines on the principles of reason, humanity, justice, christianity, and policy. But when he brings forward dormant and obsolete statutes, he seems not to be aware that he pays a high compliment to the liberal and tolerating spirit of the present age.

—We know that the repeal of these is not the object of the
the

the petitioners, and there can be but one end in enumerating them : a new spirit of persecution would be serviceable to the cause, but this spirit cannot now be excited. Our author traces the origin of persecution, and endeavours to answer the objection of innovation ; but, on the whole, he adds little to the argument, and in general repeats what has been before urged with more force and advantage.

An Enquiry into the Origin, Divine Authority, and Expediency of Civil Establishments of Religion in general, and of Christianity in particular. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1791.

The antiquity of establishments our author admits, but denies that any example of this kind was given by our Saviour ; evidently like the anonymous author of the sermon reviewed in our present Number, overlooking the political situation of the first professors of Christianity, and the obvious design of our Saviour, that the progress of Christianity should rest on the evidences of its divine authority, and the faith of the converts. That civil establishments of religion are inexpedient, destructive of the right of private judgment and civil liberty, unjust, and impediments to the cause of truth and virtue, is contended at some length and with much earnestness. The example of America is also adduced, where the different states have avoided similar institutions. On the whole, this is an able Enquiry, though the author renders it a little ludicrous by putting Nebuchadnezzar's fiery furnace on a footing with the necessity of paying tithes, and a qualification for particular offices.

P O E T R Y.

Elegiac Verses to the Memory of the Rev. Henry Stebbing, D. D. Addressed to his Son. 8vo. 2s. Dilly. 1791.

These verses may do credit to the author's gratitude and affection, but will contribute very little to his literary reputation.

An Epistle to Warren Hastings, Esq. late Governor General of Bengal. 4to. 1s. Stockdale. 1791.

‘ Amidst approaching cares will Hastings deign
To turn from wrongs, and meet the Muse's strain ?
That Muse he loves, who oft has heard his pray'r,
Strikes the bold string, that vibrates with despair !
Too sure the Muse must mourn, for wrongs like thine,
Are those of Britain, and of all the Nine.
Whilst bleeding friendship turns from thee her moan,
Yet deeply feels thy injuries her own ;
O ! let my soul indignant, share her fire,
Glow with her wrongs, and sweep the trembling lyre.
Thy awful fate a fresh example shews,
How vain the hope that virtues yield repose !

How

How vain the thought that bright ambition gains
 A just reward to recompense its pains!
 Who toils for nations, or who bleeds for fame,
 Toils but to tarnish, or destroy his name;
 Still black ingratitude impedes his way,
 Stains all his actions, and obscures his day!

That this encomiast of Mr. Hastings writes with spirit, and that his numbers are not defective either in strength or harmony, will appear from these lines with which his epistle opens. They likewise afford sufficient proof of his not being free from such imperfections as most mortal writers are commonly 'heirs to.' How far Mr. Hastings' wrongs are to be considered as those of Britain in general, or of *all* the Muses in particular, requires some elucidation. If it be granted that Mr. Hastings has been wronged, yet as the nation has been divided in sentiment concerning him, it cannot deserve an unqualified censure, or general condolence: the Muses have certainly nothing to answer for, whatever Friendship may, for, 'turning her *moan* from him.'

Select Odes of Pindar and Horace translated: together with some original Poems, accompanied with Notes critical, historical, and explanatory, by the Rev. William Tasker, A. B. Vol. I. Second Edition. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Johnson. 1790.

We paid our compliments to Mr. Tasker many years since for his spirited translation, which appears now in an improved state. It must, however, be confessed, though several errors of the first edition are corrected, that Mr. Tasker's Pegasus now and then trips and plunges a little; yet on the whole he manages him with great address, considering the rough and uneven road through which he is obliged to pursue his course. It is not easy to transfuse the beauties of Pindar into another language: nor are we uniformly pleased even with West's admirable translation of the odes he has selected; and these, as Mr. Tasker observes, are some of the best. With that gentleman he modestly declines a competition; and may reasonably expect (yet it is not often required, though his translation is more literal and the odes in general inferior) some indulgence from the reader, should it occasionally be defective in animation and spirit. However valuable the remains of Pindar may be, and many expressions in them are doubtless highly figurative and sublime, and some passages truly excellent, yet, we apprehend, he is rather calculated to afford his translator an opportunity of shining as a scholar than a poet. Mr. Tasker loses no credit when viewed in either light, and a peculiarity not unpleasing strikes us in both, we mean the text and the notes, which are pretty numerous, that accompany it.—

* Should the following attempts continue to retain the public favour, all the large collection of Pindar's Odes, not translated by

West, will (with due encouragement) be soon given to the world; though it cannot be rendered within the terms of the present subscription.'—We know not what those terms are, but we wish him success; and that the poems, which conferred immortal honour on the Theban bard, may tend, during his mortal state, to the comfortable support of his industrious Translator.

The Works, in Verse and Prose, of Leonard Welsted, Esq. Now first collected, with Historical Notes and Biographical Memoirs of the Author, by J. Nichols. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Printed for the Editor. 1790.

Some pleasure is undoubtedly derived from the reflection that we are vindicating injured merit from the aspersions of unjust ridicule. Welsted is consigned to infamy in the Dunciad, when, though never excellent, he was often above mediocrity. On this account Mr. Nichols' attempts are laudable; but we fear the virtue must be its own reward: it is impossible, at this time, to raise Leonard to the car of Fame; and the few biographical remarks, though eked out with every possible collateral information, are not very interesting or satisfactory.

D R A M A T I C.

The Widow of Malabar. A Tragedy, in Three Acts. As it is performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. Second Edition. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Lane. 1791.

Many interesting theatrical situations occur in this performance; which, with the music and decorations requisite to its public exhibition, must, we doubt not, have highly delighted the spectator. Nor will the impartial reader, who unbiassed by external ornaments, peruses it in his closet, and more coolly considers its merits and defects, lay it down displeased or unaffected.

Two Strings to your Bow, a Farce, in Two Acts. As now performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By Robert Jephson, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Kearsleys. 1791.

Lazarillo hires himself to two masters, who happen to be lovers, for the lady is in disguise. He is trusted, after repeated blunders and absurdities, though there is as little reason for confiding in him as for his having a second master. If, however, these inconsistencies are overlooked, and it is the province of farce to produce mirth, a little irregularity, the lively humour, the unexpected changes, and the happy mixture of knavery and simplicity in Lazarillo, will be found highly entertaining.

N O V E L S.

Charlotte, a Tale of Truth. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Lane. 1791.

It may be a Tale of Truth, for it is not unnatural, and it is a tale

a tale of real distress. Charlotte, by the artifice of a teacher, recommended to a school from humanity rather than a conviction of her integrity, or the regularity of her former conduct, is enticed from her governess, and accompanies a young officer to America. The marriage-ceremony, if not forgotten, is postponed, and Charlotte dies a martyr to the inconstancy of her lover and the treachery of his friend. The situations are artless and affecting; the descriptions natural and pathetic. We should feel for Charlotte, if such a person ever existed, who for one error scarcely perhaps deserved so severe a punishment. If it is a fiction poetic justice is not, we think, properly distributed.

The Orphan Marion; or, the Parent Rewarded. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Vernor. 1791.

This novel is of French manufacture, and is neither unpleasing nor uninteresting; but it is of a texture easily *seen through*, and incapable of bearing, without injury, even the lenient hand of criticism.

St. Alma, a Novel, from the French of M. de Gorgy, Author of Blansay, &c. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Lane. 1791.

A tender little story, interesting, but improbable. The author, in the second volume, approaches too near the splendor of Rousseau, not to appear in a disadvantageous situation. The most pleasing parts of this novel were, in our opinion, the artless picturesque descriptions of the habitations and inhabitants of the Alpine regions.

Eugenia and Adelaide. A Novel. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Dilly. 1791.

In the preface to this Novel, we have some hints, that it is the production of a veteran in literature. This we should not otherwise have discovered, for though it is disgraced by no considerable faults, it is distinguished by few excellencies. The ladies through the whole, are in pairs, and their adventures are equally singular and entertaining. The most interesting part of the work is the history of Eugenia, who loves the fictitious Don Clement as Olivia loved Viola in the disguise of Cesario, in the Twelfth Night of Shakspeare. The marquis too resembles the duke in the same play. The adventures of Adelaide, and what relates to the marriage of Faustina, are highly improbable.

The History of Tom Weston, a Novel, after the Manner of Tom Jones. By George Brewer, Esq. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Hookham. 1791.

This is a pleasing little Novel; the hero, like Tom Jones, is unfortunate, and his distresses arise almost wholly from misfortunes. He is not, however, a 'faultless monster;' but his errors, are the venial faults of youth: they occasion his embarrassments, though

though they never render him the object of contempt, nor is his character debased by meanness or vice. The descriptions of characters and situations are new and entertaining; but the incidents of the tale itself are parodies of those of Roderick Random, Tom Jones, and Booth in Fielding's *Amelia*. On the whole, however, these volumes rise much above the common rank: they are humorous, entertaining, and interesting.

Frederick and Alicia; or, the Sorrows of Love. A Novel. Containing the Character of an Honourable Gentleman too well known by the Nobility and others. By the Author of Lord Winworth, &c. 2 Vols. 12mo. Couch and Laking. 1791.

The character of colonel Prattle is well drawn and supported: it is the same, we suspect, that is alluded to in the title-page, and is equally infamous and contemptible. The other characters do not merit any particular distinctions; but the story is artfully involved, well conducted, and dextrously unravelled. We know not that it should be considered as a fault, that we expected the conclusion to be more important: at present we were ready to exclaim—*Quid dignum tanto fert hic promissor hiatus?* But perhaps the magnitude of our expectations proved more forcibly the author's art; and there is as much skill and more pleasure in the discovery as it now stands, than if the hero and heroine had been rendered miserable by being found to be brother and sister—an event, we shrewdly suspect, to have been first intended.

William Thornborough, the Benevolent Quixote. 4 Vols. 12mo. 12s. Robinsons. 1791.

We have found Quixotism in every passion and in every propensity of the human mind, and from many of the delineations on this plan we have drawn much entertainment. Since the period, however, of the *Spiritual Quixote*, the fairest game for the arrow of the satyr, we have despaired of reaping any great pleasure from a similar attempt: we feared the vein was exhausted, and the first steps of our author coming so near those of a lady, who at least bore the name, if she possessed not the genius of Fielding, and who, on that account, has been received with a distinction which perhaps, on the whole, she did not deserve, made us apprehensive of the event. He has acquitted himself, however, with great success. The hero is amiable and respectable, and his foible is conducted so judiciously, that though it sometimes places him in a ridiculous light, it never renders him mean or despicable. This is the true point in which the *Quixote* should be placed, and the happy mean which some writers have not perceived, or disregarded. In these volumes the hero is always interesting, and we feel always interested for his happiness: the little adventures are also artfully involved, explained with probability,

bility, and connected with skill. Too many lucky events, which could not be foreseen or reasonably expected, occur; but as the author has made so good a use of them, we shall only congratulate him on his and his hero's good fortune.

The Denial; or, the Happy Retreat. A Novel. By the Rev. James Thomson. 3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Sewell. 1791.

Is it that some tasks are too low, or that a peculiar state of mind is necessary to pursue particular studies? We cannot in this place engage in the enquiry; but it is certain that our author, whose learning might be supposed from his title, if various proofs of it did not occur in the work, has not been eminently successful. In the department of cooler reasoning, we have nothing to object; but in the little natural incidents, in the minuter points of delicate incident, there is not a millener's apprentice who hastens with her literary first-born to Leadenhall-street, but will excel not only Mr. Thomson, but probably all the senior fellows of either University. As a Novel, we think this work liable to some exceptions: as a string of dissertations on the parental authority and its abuse, these volumes deserve praise.

The Triumphs of Constancy. A Novel. In a Series of Letters. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Walter. 1791.

The most uninteresting, dry, improbable, trifling work that the novel-press, in its late laborious efforts, has produced. When will the dreary prospect be enlivened again by a work of real genius?

CONTROVERSIAL.

A Defence of the Constitution of England against the Libels that have been lately published on it; particularly in Paine's pamphlet on the Rights of Man. 8vo. 2s. Baldwin. 1791.

The objects of our author's *Attack* in this '*Defence*' are the instructor of a 'young prince,' and Mr. Thomas Paine. He is a little too angry to manage his weapons with skill, and he has directed them against enemies, who, if not kept alive by opposition, must soon sink into oblivion.

A Vindication of the Sentiments contained in a late Address to the Congregation of Baptists, assembling in Byrom-street, Liverpool. By the Rev. J. Edwards. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1791.

Mr. Edwards is an Unitarian, and the 'obnoxious passages,' which it is the object of this *Vindication* to defend, are opinions of this kind. He argues with energy and ability; nor can we less respect a man who differs in opinion from ourselves, if he supports his sentiments with honesty and candour.

Letters to the Rev. Mr. Medley, occasioned by his late Behaviour, while engaged in the Performance of Divine Service, in his New Chapel. By the Rev. J. Edwards. 8vo. 1790.

Mr. Medley is, we apprehend, a preacher among the Baptists, and to his attack *from the pulpit*, these Letters, and the 'Vindication' just mentioned, refer.

Observations on the Right Hon. Edmund Burke's Pamphlet, on the Subject of the French Revolution. By Benj. Bousfield, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1791.

Our author cannot rank with the most able of Mr. Burke's antagonists. His familiar Observations are, however, well adapted to the epistolary form, and the happiest parts of the Reply are those in which he points out the inconsistencies in the author of the Reflections. These, with the observations on the church, and too great respect to despotism, are certainly the vulnerable sides of this celebrated work.

The Welsh Freeholder's Vindication of his Letter to the right. Rev. Samuel, Lord Bishop of St. David's, in Reply to a Letter from a Clergyman of that Diocese; together with Strictures on the said Letter. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1791.

The Freeholder replies to the Clergyman with much spirit and shrewdness. He employs arguments, sarcasm, and irony in turn: we truly think 'he is more than his match.'

A Series of Letters to the Right Hon. Edmund Burke; in which are contained Enquiries into the constitutional Existence of an Impeachment against Mr. Hastings. By G. Hardinge, Esq. M. P. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell. 1791.

It is long since we have read a work which has united so much manly energy and sound reasoning to such spirit, extensive constitutional knowledge, and genuine dignified humour. These will be the amber to enshrine our author's arguments, when the subject shall be no longer popular, and when Mr. Hastings shall be only remembered for his good services to his country, to literature, and, we may add, to humanity. After the opinions we have already given, this character will not be attributed to political partiality. In the cooler decisive moments of examination, a question will begin to assume a new form, from the dissipation of the mists which, in the warmth of a political enquiry, will cover and disfigure it. One strong argument, which we had occasion to mention, Mr. Hardinge has opposed with validity; and some others he has certainly answered very satisfactorily, though even his ingenuity leaves occasionally some parts of the subject still liable to doubt and to dispute. We cannot, however, state either at length, from the circumstances which first led us to give only

only a summary account of the debate in the 'Catalogue.'—We shall therefore leave Mr. Hardinge in full possession of the applause which his Letters will undoubtedly procure, selecting only one short specimen. It is an animated reply to one of Mr. Burke's imputations on the legal corps.

'But, "*they look to the house of lords.*" Where, sir, must that Revolution have been found, which you so correctly understand, and with such dignity have rescued from insidious friends; if, before the golden period arrived, Somers (a name which no other, of any age, or of any scene, has yet surpassed, in liberality of sentiments, in the delicacy of political discernment, or in the most elevated spirit of public virtue) had been called, with popular effect, by such eloquence, and wit, as yours, "a bird of passage," "not at home in the house of commons," but, "perching there in his way to the lords," with "his eye fixed upon those flowers and fruits that were glowing, and ripening for him there,—in that resting-place of delight?" If in those days his profession, which had always considerable weight in the house of commons, had been depreciated, where should we have traced the "*just*" and the "*tenacious of his purpose*," in *Holt's* character? or the experience, and calm wisdom of *Maynard*? If in earlier times the same ridicule had been fashionable, we should have lost the patriot firmness of *Selden*, accompanied with a mass of learning that in points of the deepest consequence to the liberty of the subject, weighed his adversaries down; the liberal, expanded, and luminous mind of *lord Hale*; I may add, with all his blemishes, the *earl of Clarendon*? Were these, men of cramped ideas, or of that gross incapacity for constitutional knowledge, and political spirit, which you ascribe to the inherent character, and radical infirmities of our profession? May I not ask too, if you have discovered in the historian's page, that lawyers have been even *accused* of the "*esprit du corps*, in "parliament;" or of any views to power and rank, that were not rather challenged, than solicited by the weight of their character?"

The wonderful Flights of Edmund the Rhapsodist, into the sublime and beautiful Regions of Fancy, Fiction, Extravagance, and Absurdity, exposed, and laughed at, by a Descendant of Momus.
8vo. 2s. 6d. Symonds. 1791.

A descendent of Momus! No, no: the gods had a better taste. Our best genealogists inform us, that he belongs to the family of Therstytes, and has only lost, in the course of 3000 years, the wit, spirit, and invention of his celebrated ancestor. His scurrility is unimpaired.

M E D I C A L.

Cautions to the Heads of Families, in Three Parts. By A. Fothergill, M. D. F. R. S. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly. 1790.

We have already noticed these essays in our review of the Bath Society's Papers, and need scarcely add that we think Dr. Fothergill too cautious.

A Remarkable Case of Madness, with the Diet and Medicines used in the Cure. By William Perfect, M. D. 8vo. 1s. Evans. 1791.

This Case is designed to illustrate and confirm Dr. Rowley's plan of abstinence from fluids, camphor, and laxatives, as remedies in cases of mania. We do not find, however, that any very essential benefit resulted from it. The disease went on in the usual way, and at last seemed to vanish spontaneously. Bleeding appeared to do most service. There was undoubtedly an irritation on the brain, with some marks of compression. The case seemed of the mixed kind, between hydrocephalus and that degree of distention which produces restlessness and irregularity; which, somewhat increased, might have terminated in apoplexy. It is a little remarkable that our author should have overlooked the real nature of the case, when he has recorded an observation of the attendants, that the child seemed better the more copious the discharge of urine was, and that sometimes it was obstructed for a pretty long period.

The Utility of Medical Electricity illustrated, in a Series of Cases, and Practical Observations. By Francis Lowndes. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1791.

These Cases are designed to show the utility of 'electrical vibrations.' As we know not how the operation is conducted, we cannot offer any opinion on the subject; in our hands, in all the different ways of employing this remedy, it has failed, or produced only a slight and a transitory effect.

A Treatise on the Disease commonly called Angina Pectoris. By William Butter, M. D. 8vo. 2s. Johnson. 1791.

Our author thinks this disease is an irregular atonic gout, which affecting the stomach and bowels with wind, aided by the usual constipations in such constitutions, bring on spasms in the stomach, and by sympathy, or by the irritation, affect the neighbouring muscle, the diaphragm and intercostals, impeding perspiration. The pain extends down the arms in consequence of the vicinity of the brachial and diaphragmatic nerves. The cure is equally simple, and depends on regular diet and the daily use of an easy laxative. The pulvis antilyssus of the late London Dispensatory

is recommended in the intervals. On the whole, this view of the case is to be recommended from its simplicity; but a little farther enquiry, and more careful examination, are necessary to establish it. At present, so far as our experience has gone, we do not think the explanation is supported by a high degree of probability. We have not seen it particularly affect gouty habits, terminate in gout, or be connected with the state of the primæ viæ. It has appeared a spasmodic disease, affecting all the organs of respiration, and particularly the mediastinum, without any evident cause, and admitting only of alleviation, not of cure. In one gouty person, a regular fit seemed to have little influence on the disease.

A short Enquiry into the Merits of 'A new discovered Fact of a relative Nature in the Venereal Poison.' By Thomas Ogle, jun. 8vo. 1s. Johnson, 1791.

Mr. Ogle, in this little pamphlet, opposes, with great force and success, Mr. Foot's 'Newly discovered Fact,' and shows, that it is not even established by his own experiments, while it is contradicted by the general tenor of facts on this subject.

In the Appendix, are some observations on Dr. Baillie's account of the change of structure in the human ovarium. In these it is contended, not only that the system of the ovaria, 'taking on a process imitative of generation,' is in itself improbable, but directly opposed by an observation of Ruysch, who found a similar fatty substance, hair and teeth, in the stomach of a man.

The Chemical Principles of the Metallic Arts, with an Account of the Principal Diseases incident to the different Artificers; the Means of Prevention, and Cure; and a concise Introduction to the Study of Chemistry. By W. Richardson, F. S. A. Sc. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Baldwin. 1790.

This very concise system of metallurgic chemistry is designed chiefly for the use of manufacturers; and it contains not only a perspicuous introduction to chemistry in general, but a very useful account of the more particular properties of metals; and the different methods of preparing each metal for the different operations in which it is employed, are in general described with tolerable accuracy. The receipts are not always sufficiently clear to enable persons in general to perform the processes with success, and what is of more consequence, some disagreeable accidents, which may attend the unskilful practitioner, are not pointed out; but on the whole, it is an useful little work, and for those to whom it is destined, it will be very valuable. Numerous errors, though not always of importance, however, occur.

The account of the diseases incident to artificers, with the prevention and cure, is, in general, judicious and satisfactory.

Medical Advice to the Inhabitants of warm Climates, on the domestic Treatment of all the Diseases incident therein. With a few useful Hints to new Settlers, for the Preservation of Health, and the prevention of Sickness. By Robert Thomas. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Johnson. 1790.

This is a very useful and judicious work, designed chiefly for domestic information, to obviate the fatal effects of various diseases whose progress is rapid, before proper assistance can be obtained. Mr. Thomas seems, however, to have done too much, and will lead, we fear, his West India friends into those dangerous paths in which many have been entangled, by following the advice of Dr. Buchan in this climate. Some judicious rules are given for the preservation of the health of new settlers and negroes. Our author thinks that the abolition of the slave-trade would be an unjust measure, that the stock of negroes could not be kept up, and that the situation of the greatest number of plantations will not allow the planter to use the plough.

P O L I T I C A L.

An Address to both Houses of Parliament: containing Reasons for a Tax upon Dogs, and the Outlines of a Plan for that Purpose; and for effectually suppressing the oppressive Practice of impressing Seamen, and more expeditiously manning the Royal Navy. By G. Clark. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1791.

The author of the present Address is a strenuous advocate for a tax upon dogs, under an impression that these animals are, in general, an article of luxury. Dogs kept for sporting, or for the chase, undoubtedly are such; and their owners might afford to pay a moderate tax; but to lay it upon all the species, as the author proposes, would affect the interest of many persons, to whom dogs are necessary in a pastoral life, and useful for domestic security. It is certain, at the same time, that dogs are far too numerous among the poor; but should a tax of five shillings a year, which is the rate mentioned by the author, be universally imposed, the result would be a merciless slaughter of this tribe of animals, and an arbitrary deprivation of domestic amusement in thousands of families in the kingdom.

This author, in his zeal for the measure which he proposes, suggests one observation not much attended to: it is, that all sorts of epidemical fevers are conveyed from house to house by the means of dogs. 'Make (says he) such laws as shall eventually lessen the number of dogs, and which shall confine those who shall remain to the immediate possession of their owners; and this evil, which is of no trifling moment, will in a great measure be remedied.' Whether does the author mean to make the dogs or their owners liable to punishment for the transgression he mentions?

Considera

Considerations on the Matter of Libel. Suggested by Mr. Fox's Notice in Parliament, of an intended Motion on that Subject. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1791.

The matter of libel has been discussed with great ability by Mr. Erskine, in his speech on a motion for a new trial in the case of the dean of St. Asaph. The author of the pamphlet, selecting his arguments from those of the counsellor, has endeavoured to divest the subject of all technical obscurity, and to call the attention of the people to the political, as well as the legal consideration of it.

Considerations on the Approach of War, and the Conduct of his Majesty's Ministers. 8vo. 2s. Debrett. 1791.

This author censures with great vehemence, the conduct of the ministers respecting the present armament, which he considers as totally unnecessary, and even destructive on the part of Great Britain. He can see no reason for apprehending any danger to the balance of power in Europe from the aggrandisement of Russia. Entertaining such an opinion, his zeal may be justifiable.—On the other hand, it may be urged, that the consequences of Russia's attaining a great addition to her naval power, though they might not be felt by Great Britain immediately, would, in the course of years, prove extremely pernicious to her interests; and that we should, therefore, endeavour to restrain the ambition of that aspiring empire within such bounds as may be consistent with the general safety of other powers.—We cannot presume to decide upon so delicate a question; but we hope that the interference of Great Britain will not be productive of a war; an event which will be highly inconvenient to the nation in its present state.

Considerations on the Opinion stated by the Lords of the Committee of Council, in a Representation to the King, upon the Corn Laws. By William Mitford, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Stockdale. 1791.

This important subject is now under the consideration of parliament. Mr. Mitford appears to have examined it with a proper degree of solicitude, and suggests many useful observations of a general nature, which are certainly worthy of attention.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

The History of Little Grandison. By M. Berquin. 12mo. 1s. Stockdale. 1791.

The purest benevolence and the soundest morality seem to have dictated this volume. We have read it with considerable satisfaction, and we doubt not that our younger friends will find it equally interesting and entertaining.

The Ship's Husband, a Narrative; being a State of Facts. Addressed to the Honorable Court of Directors of the East India Company; the Ships' Husbands, and Commanders, and Officers in that Service. By Capt. John Walsby. 8vo. 2s. Richardson. 1791.

This pamphlet contains a circumstantial, and apparently ingenuous account of a series of negociations between captain Walsby and two ship's husbands, relative to his obtaining the command of a vessel in the service of the East India Company. It appears that these two men, whose names we forbear to mention, have, in the course of their respective transactions, been guilty of the most shameful behaviour towards captain Walsby. Humanity startles at the prevarications, and the numerous breaches of faith, which occur in this narrative. Whether the captain's appeal to the public will prove the means of procuring him any atonement from those who have so infamously sported with the most sacred engagements, as well as with his interests, we know not; but it is to be wished, that the conduct of ship's husbands were rendered more conformable to the obligations of justice and honour, which in a civilized nation ought never to be violated with impunity.

An Address to the Proprietors of East-India Stock, and to the Public. Containing a Narrative of the Cases of the Ships Tartar and Hartwell, late in the Company's Service. By Mr. John Fiott, of London, Merchant. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Richardson. 1791.

The author of this Address remonstrates against the conduct of the Directors of the East India Company respecting some vessels, which were built upon a tacit engagement of being employed in their service. According to Mr. Fiott's account, the conduct of the Directors is a little too arbitrary.—Some particulars are added with respect to the rocks and shoals near the island of Bonavista.

An Enquiry into the Nature of the Social Contract, or Principles of Political Right. Translated from the French of John James Rousseau. 8vo. 5s. Robinsons. 1791.

This work was one of the first publications which led our neighbours to examine the principles of government more minutely, and to enquire into the origin of that power, whose effects had, for a series of years, influenced their happiness, and almost their existence. With this persuasion, the national assembly of France have paid the highest respect to the memory of Rousseau; and by their munificence rendered the last days of Teresa more comfortable. For the same reason, the translator thought it worthy of an English dress, and he has executed his task with great precision and perspicuity. The work has been so long and so generally known; various passages have been so often copied in English works, that we think a particular account of it unnecessary.

Whatever

Whatever becomes of the system of a prior original contract, it must be allowed, that the continuance of government must depend on the tacit acquiescence of the governed. Power must be really in the people, though the idea of their ever having voluntarily relinquished it for the general benefit of the whole, is, we think visionary. In every other respect, Rousseau's work deserves the warmest approbation. It is correct, judicious, and convincing.

CORRESPONDENCE.

WE are greatly obliged to C. S. for his communications, and we shall avail ourselves of his permission to mention that the 'Reflections on the Causes, &c. of the Revolution in France,' is an original work, though in the guise of a translation: the freedom of the Reflections on the religious principles and the conduct of our northern neighbours made, it seems, this measure expedient. The 'Reflections' is undoubtedly a work of real merit, though we must regret that it was *expedient* to have recourse to an evasion of this kind in any part of the British dominions. The 'Sketch of the Life of Dr. Liddel' we are informed, on the same authority, is the work of lord Hailes.

Montesquieu's Fugitive Pieces have been omitted only in consequence of some unavoidable accidents.

The requests of J. S. T. S. J. B. will be attended to as soon as possible.

Our Correspondent 'Medicus,' who complains of the delay of some medical works, will perceive that we have been making exertions to recover our lost time. The late controversies and other circumstances have occasioned the delay.

We have received a letter, said to be written by the author of Memoirs of Mr. A. Bowles, of which an account was given in the Critical Review of last February.—The gentleman is very angry, indeed! and we are sorry for it.—But as to his threatenings,

'They pass by us as the idle wind,

Which we respect not.' —

He ought to know, that the authenticity of a narrative may be questioned without any impeachment of the writer's veracity, who is supposed to tell, only, what he has been informed.

On Wednesday June 1, 1791, will be published (Price 1s. 6d.)

A N

A P P E N D I X

T O T H E

FIRST VOLUME of the NEW ARRANGEMENT

O F T H E

C R I T I C A L R E V I E W.

C O N T A I N I N G

The Title, Preface, Contents, and Index to the First Volume, — Foreign Literature, — Conclusions and Continuations of such Works as could not be comprehended in the current Numbers — with other Articles, which, it is presumed, will be found equally useful and entertaining.

*** *The Occurrence of several Literary Controversies, and, above all, the Disputes lately occasioned by the Revolution in France, have greatly impeded our Progress; and, in our Eagerness to keep pace with the public Expectation, many Foreign Publications have been omitted. The Size of our Volumes has also been the Cause of some Complaint: so that, while we endeavoured strictly to observe our Engagements, we have had numerous Objections to encounter, and numerous Excuses to offer—We are obliged, therefore, to have recourse to the Expedient that, in our last Address to the Public, we supposed might be necessary in ‘peculiar Emergencies;’ and, if there ever was a Situation, since the Publication of a Literary Journal, which might be styled particularly important, it is the present, when the great constitutional and political Questions require an immediate and careful Consideration.—As these Deficiencies can only be supplied in an Appendix, we have complied with the earnest Request of many respectable Correspondents, to divide the Annual Numbers into Three Volumes, and to begin the present Year with a new Arrangement, which will give an Opportunity of printing an Index to the Critical Review, from its Commencement to the End of the Year 1790, amounting to 70 Volumes.—Every Attention will be paid to make the Contents of this Work valuable; and, in the Appendix some additional ones will be added, to render it an Object deserving of public Attention.*

A P P E N D I X

TO THE

F I R S T V O L U M E.

OF THE

N E W A R R A N G E M E N T

OF THE

C R I T I C A L R E V I E W.

F O R E I G N A R T I C L E S.

Histoire de la Société Royale de Médecine, des Années 1786, 1787, & 1788. Tom. VIII. & IX. avec les Mémoires de Médecine & de Physique Médicale pour les mêmes Années. 4to. Barrois.

TO unite some new information to our account of the volumes of this very respectable society, we have joined the two last volumes into one article. In that for 1787 and 1788 is an address from the society to the national assembly, in which they inform their new sovereigns, that they have hastened to obey the decree of the twentieth of August, in introducing ‘*the new reform in its correspondence and interior regulation.*’ But, if they had confined themselves to this subject only, it might have appeared that they had been only employed on their own business. An object of more importance has fixed their attention, a general reform in the medical education and the regulation of hospitals. The passage we have distinguished would probably escape even an attentive reader, or he would consider it as a minute arrangement of little importance. In reality, it seems to form an æra in the transactions of the society, and the propriety or prudence of the regulation can only be judged of from the effects. The comment on these few words we must select from the *Journal de Physique* for last October, or at least what we suppose to be the comment, as it is posterior to the address.

‘The Faculty of Medicine requests the suppression of the Royal Society. Without taking any part in the dispute, we shall only state some facts known to the whole world. This society was first established by the influence of the first physician

fician of the king, despotic, at that time, in this department, as every other minister, for he may be considered as a minister, was in his own. He was seconded by some persons who wished to procure places, according to the fashion of those times *. This establishment sowed the seeds of division between the physicians of the capital, who were consequently distinguished into physicians of the faculty, to which class some of the most celebrated continued their attachment, and physicians of the society. Has science gained by this division? No: some individuals have gained lucrative places, and this was all that they wished, for this is the whole object of the academies of the capital, who think themselves of so much service. We hear them calling incessantly for pensions or medals. "Can any academician of the capital be paid too much, (for no recompense is required in provincial academies) and can a society exist without academies?" As if Greece or Rome had academies in this sense; England and Switzerland, who do not pension their academicians, are, therefore, undoubtedly barbarous countries.

'It must not be supposed that I think a philosopher undeserving any recompense. The national assembly has decreed that every man of letters, whose labours have been useful, shall receive a pension as well as any other citizen, but it is not certain that this reward is to be obtained because he is an academician and an academician of the capital, for is it not singular that M. M. Bayen, Morveau, abbé Cotte, abbé Rozier, &c. have no pension because they are provincial academicians? * * * There are other abuses also, for the favoured academicians have three, four, or five places; in short, as many as they obtain, whose duties they cannot fulfil, so they deprive others who have an equal right to them.

'To return to the Royal Society of Medicine, the national assembly should to join them to the faculty, from whom they ought never to have been separated, and the physicians of Paris will publish memoirs, when they have a sufficient number, which deserve the distinction, as the surgeons have done, who, fortunately, had not credit enough to be pensioned, and consequently divided. It is the plan which the physicians of Vienna, London, Edinburgh, &c. have pursued, and we know that they have not laboured less usefully than the Royal Society of Medicine at Paris.'

Such are the arguments employed, and which we suspect have succeeded. How far they are well founded must, as we

* We need scarcely observe that the editor, M. de la Méthérie, is a demagogue.

have said, be left to experience. If the new regulations for teaching and practising medicine are the last legacy of the society, it must be allowed to be a valuable one. We intended to have selected some passages of the greatest importance from the general laws, the result of the observations; but we fear they would appear with less advantage in their unconnected state. We observe, however, that in the plan of education, the society engages with some eagerness in its own defence, speaks of its own merits, but confines the defence to the 'exterior' arrangement.

The first of these volumes begins with the usual history and programma. The eulogy of M. de Vergennes is the only life, and it is written with the most disgraceful partiality. A list of the works published by the members, or sent to the society, with short accounts of a few of these, in which too great complaisance is, as usual, conspicuous.

The meteorological observations, reduced by Father Cotte, precedes the rest of the history, and we may make some short extracts from his 'general results.' The temperature of the year 1786 has been, he observes, in general cold and moist; in some provinces cold and dry. The winter mild and moist; the spring and summer cold and very dry. The autumn cold and moist. The influence of the lunar points on the temperature has not been more conspicuous than in the former years. The greatest heat occurred the fourth day after full moon; and the least at the same period after new moon. The greatest elevation of the barometer was also at this time, and the least at the austral lunifrice.

M. M. de la Porte and Vicq d'Azyr have communicated some reflections on epidemic diseases, and the plan which the society proposes to follow in the construction of their history. They think it evident that every epidemic is connected with some sensible change in the state of the air, and adduce various facts which establish the principle in general. Many epidemics, however, appear to be wholly independent of these changes, and to arise from some subtle insensible miasma, though we have much reason to think that, if meteorological observations were more frequent and exact, more connection would be observable. The 'Medical Topography,' published in these volumes, is designed as the basis of a system of epidemics, and it is the intention of the compilers to divide France into northern and southern provinces, and to consider in each the more important epidemics, as they occur in spring and autumn, as influenced, in either season, by the state of the air.

The first observation in the department of the 'practice' is on a disease of the bones, a kind of spina ventosa, which the author, M. Saillant, calls 'a medullary gout.' As M. Pouble,

formerly the physician of Voltaire, was affected with it, the title of this memoir is on 'La Maladie de Pouble,' and the design of M. Saillant is to describe his case. The joints were swollen, and, in general, immoveable; the bones flexible. It appeared to be a disease of the marrow, which dissolved the bony substance. The dissection is very accurately related; and, on a chemical analysis, the diseased bones produced much less earth, a greater proportion of oil and volatile alkali than healthy bones; and seemingly no phosphorus. The skin was remarkably hard, perhaps from some of the earthy matter thrown out by the exhalent vessels.

M. Saillant has added also some observations on the gastritis, or the inflammation of the stomach of infants. In a few instances of ardent fever which he saw, attended with violent pain, he had reason to suspect a disease of the stomach, which was found on dissection to be an inflammation, with a considerable inflammatory distention of the gall-bladder. In other instances he supposed the same cause to exist, and gave cold water, and sedative or refrigerant drinks. These, however, would have cured the fever if there had been no inflammation, and he seems never to have examined the state of the epigastric region externally, for he could not have mistaken the cause originally, if he had employed this precaution. The distilled water of the lettuce is well imitated, he remarks, from Fourcroy, by distilling a quart of water from four grains of opium.

A singular account of a very extensive abscess follows. It began in the lungs, passed through the diaphragm, and on the convex side of the liver, through the duplicature of the epiploon, forwards towards the navel, and downwards till it terminated in the cellular substance between the uterus and rectum. The symptoms were those of hectic fever, and there was a discharge of air, with matter at the umbilicus. The inside of the abscess was covered with a black mucous putrid substance, and those parts of the viscera exposed to its pressure were gangrened (probably from the access of air) till after the abscess had passed the umbilicus, when the gangrene was less observable. A singular case is subjoined, where pus was evacuated by stool, of a foetid sanious kind. The abscesses found were two, on the convex and concave side of the liver, but the pus in these was white and laudable, and, from these abscesses, there was no communication with the cavity of the intestines. Some inconsiderable sources of purulent matter in the bowels were probably overlooked.

The same author, M. Hallé, gives another singular case, where the appearances on dissection were very different from those

those which the symptoms promised. The child of a man, whose constitution was destroyed by frequent syphilitic infections, was of a livid earthy complexion, and seemed always to lean on one side. On being attacked by a tertian, a swelling of the right hypochonder was observable, which, with some remissions, continued, and at last increased considerably. The pulse was for a long time fluttering, scarcely to be felt, the child lay with ease on the right side, till debility and convulsions finished the melancholy scene. The defect was in the lungs. The whole of the right lobe was schirrous, and the right side of the heart almost wholly obliterated. The left side and left lungs were sound, but small: the whole of the blood appeared to be collected in the abdominal viscera, and the vessels of every kind below the diaphragm. This singular case, of which we have only sketched the outline, deserves great attention: our author is inclined to attribute the origin of the disease to the syphilitic virus.

M. Hallé's next memoir relates to a gall-stone, and a stone found in the kidney. The case is in some respects curious, but, as it contains a long detail of unconnected complaints, we cannot abridge it. The gall-stone was of the crystalline kind, and the other had a nucleus of a reddish kind, perhaps a drop of blood. The laminæ next the nucleus were yellow, and the external laminæ green. It seems to have been formed during a fit of jaundice, when the urine was highly charged with bile.

The last practical observation is by M. Fourcroy, who gives an account of a singular disease of the skin. It is a peculiar tumour on the right side of the forehead, extending from the middle over the eye-brow towards the right ear. We remember an account of a similar tumour that rose from the vortex, described and figured in some periodical collection, we believe the *Philosophical Transactions*.

In the department of anatomy there are several cases of spontaneous rupture of the stomach and intestines, but they are not so distinctly related as to enable us to judge whether they were occasioned by previous local inflammation and gangrene, or from any other cause.

The first chemical memoir is on the sophistication of cyders. The authors of the 'report' are M. M. Thouret, Lavoisier, and de Fourcroy. In Normandy the acid cyders are mellowed by chalk, by alkalies, and by calces of lead. Falstaff may with justice exclaim, 'there is lime in *this* sack.' The two first ingredients, however, do no injury, but it is asserted that by these the cerussie may be so much disguised as to elude the effects of the liquor probatorius: at all events, besides the dif-

ferent re-agents, the authors recommend evaporation, and an attempt to reduce any metallic calx that may be there. They justly observe, that these ingredients may more easily be found in the lees, as they are generally added in too great quantity.

The second report contains the decisions of M. M. de Fourcroy and Thouret on the experiments of the chemists, nominated by the baillages of Normandy. They think the effects of the liquor probatorius not sufficiently to be depended on to preclude the necessity of calcination and reduction of the extract. Copper too they find sometimes occur in cyder, from another method of meliorating its quality, viz. making a syrup of a portion of the cyder, by boiling it with sugar, and adding to it the austerer kind. The precipitation of the mucilage of the cyder, by fixed alkali, cannot, they think, be mistaken for calcareous earth, but some of this earth is occasionally found in cyder that has been filtered through paper, which, when acid, it attracts from the filter.

A report by M. M. Dehorne, Thouret, Hallé, and de Fourcroy, on the reputed antiseptic power of snow in destroying the deleterious vapours of necessary-houses, follows. They think it has no influence in destroying the noxious powers of the vapour, but acts only as water in repressing the smell, with which the mephitic vapour has no connection.

The only memoir, in the department of botany, is by M. A. L. de Jussien, on the connection between the characters of plants and their medical virtues. This author does not, however, add much to our knowledge of the subject. He accumulates many well known facts, and proves, in general, that the nearer the resemblance is, the greater is the similarity in the powers and effects.

The first observation, in the class of medical philosophy, relates to the collection of animal matters near the vaults of Montfaucon, which seems to be the receptacle of the collected filth of the city. It is too disgusting a subject and chiefly of local importance. Another report on vaults we may, we trust, be permitted to pass over. As we have mentioned, in our account of the chemical annals, M. de Fourcroy's experiments on degenerated animal substances, we may notice M. Thouret's description of the removal of the bodies in the church-yard of the Innocents, the common receptacle, for many ages, of the dead. It seems to have been executed with equal propriety, decency, and respect. From fifteen to twenty thousand bodies were removed, besides the remains of numberless others. The spot was tarraffed with care, and filled up. The change into the peculiar substance resembling spermaceti, is confined apparently to bodies where the fat was not
wasted,

wasted, and where no chronic disease had tainted the fluids. The thinner persons became in resemblance mummies, but this, from the experiments of M. de Fourcroy, does not seem to alter the substance, it only changes the appearance. Those who died of a cacochymy wasted away. What was the origin of the opinion, countenanced by the language of scripture, of worms eating the body, we know not. It evidently appears to be without foundation, though, as highly humiliating to human pride, and adding to the force of the moralist's lesson, it certainly has had a good effect. We trust, however, that morality does not want the assistance of an opinion founded in error. The change begins from the bottom; the skin is first altered, and afterwards the adipose membrane; the muscles and the viscera are more late in becoming this peculiar substance, which after all is more probably developed than formed. The change, our author thinks, is produced by the action of the gasses evolved by putrefaction, which the earth only gradually absorbs, and, in which, the body remains digesting; but it ought to be remembered that a similar change took place in a portion of the liver hung in the open air. The brain appears to be the most indestructible part; but neither this nor the rest of the body become earth. The gasses exhale; water washes away the soluble part; the body disappears, and its elements contribute to form some new compound, which must again yield to time. Every thing is passing away, and what we see is but the arrangement of the moment.

A report on the proposal of M. Boncerf, relative to the draining of marshes, was received with great applause. Twelve hundred thousand arpens* of ground are still marshy in France, and it appears from the report, that almost in every instance, the neighbouring inhabitants are affected with epidemics. Where a part of the country had been from this cause unhealthy, draining the marsh has been found to remove the occurrence of the fevers. M. Boncerf has communicated his plans of draining, which are approved of by the commissioners, and the whole is, we apprehend, referred to the national assembly.

Another report relates to a proposal by M. St. Victor, of draining the marshes of Burgundy. The situation of the marshes is described; and, after a little discussion, the plan is approved of by the commissioners.

M. Theuret's memoir on the nature of the substance of the brain, and its comparative incorruptibility, is singularly curious. The facts result from the event so often mentioned, the

* An arpent is a hundred perches square, of eighteen feet each; said to be equal to one-fourth of an English acre.

removal of the bodies from the church-yard of the Innocents, in which the brain was observed to be little altered, when the rest of the body was almost wholly destroyed. This is more singular, as the brain is known to putrify soon, and some anatomists have supposed that it increases the tendency to putrefaction in the other parts. The substance, however, of this viscus was found to resemble the white concrete oil of the spermaceti whale. When compared with the recent brain, the latter appeared of a more oily nature, convertible by the addition of an alkali, into a hard soap. In the detail of these experiments our author is not, however, very explicit; and it is not easy to say, whether he considers the brain as convertible into a saponaceous substance, or already in that state. We suspect that neither is correctly true: it has assumed a solid form from the concreting power of the ammoniacal salts in the living body, but becomes, after death, more strictly saponaceous from the addition of the volatile alkali separated by the putrefaction. In the natural state, so far from being saponaceous, it dissolves in spirit of wine, and, like concentered oils (rezins), is precipitated from that menstruum by water. The original state of the spermaceti is said to be oily, and it concretes by being thrown into the sea-water. On the whole, M. Thouret concludes, that this concrete oil is a principle, already formed in the living body; separated for the formation and repair of the brain, and evacuated by the liver, when in excess; originating in the vegetable kingdom from the glutinous matter; developed by the organs of digestion; and by a slight change becoming at last an essential part of animals. The justness and accuracy of these remarks must rest on the credit of the author. The subject is new, and opens a vast field for disquisition and enquiry. At present we can only say, that M. Thouret's opinion is highly probable, interesting from its novelty, and prepossessing from its simplicity.

To conclude the subject of animal chemistry, so far as it is pursued in this volume, we shall turn to another part of it, and give some account of M. Fourcroy's history of the gas azote or mephites (phlogisticated air), as a principle of animal matters. From considering the former experiments that have been made on this subject, compared with his own, M. de Fourcroy concludes, that the base of this gas, in other words, the substance which, when united to the caloric, forms the phlogisticated air is the distinguishing principle of animal bodies. It is the cause of the difference observed between vegetables and animals, and the more copious it is the greater is the difference. The flesh of carnivorous animals produces it in a much greater proportion than that of graminivorous; but
the

the quantity from the flesh of birds is very inconsiderable; from fish it is almost equal to that from carnivorous animals. It is sufficiently known that this is the gas found in the air-bladders of fish, and derived, M. Fourcroy tells us, from the stomach, through a canal which has been lately discovered. The concrete oil, which is the consequence of long putrefaction, does not furnish the smallest proportion of this air, which is, when separated, in particular circumstances, highly deleterious. 'How then, asks our author, is it foetid? How do animals, fed with matter purely vegetable, attract the azote? Is there any organ destined to deprive this fluid of its caloric, and combine it with fluids and solids? These are questions which require more laborious investigations into the nature of animal life than have yet been undertaken: the present resources of science lead me to hope that we may acquire this useful knowledge; and it is from the functions of respiration and absorption that it will probably be obtained.'

We must for the present leave these instructive volumes, which we shall, we hope, soon resume and finish. They speak most eloquently against the dissolution of the society; against depriving the members of those rewards which their diligence have so well deserved.

(To be continued.)

Memoirs de M. le Duc de Choiseul, ancien Ministre de la Marine, &c. Ecrits par lui meme, & imprime sous ses Yeux dans son Cabinet de Chanteloup. 2 Vols. 8vo. Buisson. Paris.

THESE are not properly the memoirs of the duke de Choiseul, but memoirs composed by this minister during the course of his administration and his disgrace. There is also some account of two court intrigues respecting the Jesuits, and the artifices employed to deprive him of his office of colonel-general of the Swiss guards. The present edition is printed from that of the author in 1778, and all the interest of the family has been employed, we understand, to suppress it: the authenticity, however, of the work is undoubted, and we see nothing in it very injurious to the character of the duke. One or two of these memoirs only relate to the events of his life. We shall give some account of the first of this kind, entitled, 'A particular Anecdote of the Court of Louis XV.'

It has been commonly believed that the duke de Choiseul had a considerable share in the abolition of the order of the Jesuits, and, in this part of his work, he seems particularly eager to refute the opinion. It was communicated in a memoir, which greatly irritated the king against his minister, and he was informed by madame de Pompadour, that this memoir

was

was put into the king's hands by the dauphin, and composed by M. d'Am. . . The particulars of the examination of this gentleman before the king and M. de Saint Florentin are added; and, in consequence of this, the duke was justified. The dauphin supported the Jesuits, and the situation of the duke with the heir-apparent may be judged of by the following conversation.

‘On coming from the king, I went to the dauphin: he was with the queen, and I waited on him there to request a moment's audience. He soon returned to his own apartments, and, when we came into his cabinet, I observed that the king had allowed me to express my concern, and I added my indignation, at reading a memoir supposed to be written by a counsellor of the parliament, M. d'Am. . . The dauphin interrupted me, and said with an embarrassed air—what then; the king has put it into your hands—Yes, sir; and he has also told me that he had it from your highness, and this has occasioned the explanation I presume to request from you. The dauphin in a passion, but not in a greater passion than I was, told me not to speak so loud. Sir, said I, we ought always to speak loud when we offer the truth. At the word offer (*presenter*) he turned his back, and I added—Sir, you are leaving me; but it is my duty to observe, that though I may have the misfortune of being your subject, I will never be your servant.’

In the explanation of the intrigues practised to deprive the duke of the post of colonel-general, there is but one man who appears in a respectable light. It is M. du Ch. the friend of the ex-minister. He spared no pains to procure him at least the recompence which he requested. After this explanation, we find a letter from madame de Choiseul, in which she rejects that part of the recompence which was to have been her share. This admirable letter is addressed to Louis, and we shall translate a part of it.

‘Sire. Your majesty is pleased to honour me with a favour, which in any other situation would have been highly flattering to me, and which my present circumstances prevent me from accepting. The period of favours, sir, is passed away; that of justice can never pass away, and it is justice only that I demand. To dare to complain to you, sire, is to have a confidence in your justice; and to think you just is the truest homage. Flattery accuses ministers of the misconduct of the monarch; truth and history attribute to the monarch the faults of ministers. I speak the voice of the one, and it remains for you, sir, to prevent the recitals of the other.’ Madame de Choiseul, in the following parts of the letter, expatiates on the services of her husband, and endeavours

Yours

vours to show how little he deserved to be deprived of a charge, from which the king, when he gave it him, declared that he was not to be removed.

The first of the memoirs, on the different objects of administration, relates to the liberty of exporting corn. The writers on this subject, in the duke's opinion, have mistaken the question, which is only one of fact and of calculation. It is necessary to know, says he, 1. How many mouths there are in France to eat bread. 2. How much grain is, on an average, reaped in the kingdom. 3. How much, on an average, France could export, if she was wholly at liberty to do so. M. de Choiseul supposes twenty millions only in France, and allows each person two setiers (thirty bushels) annually; the setier valued at two hundred and forty francs. Reckoning eleven millions for the seed, sixty-one millions of setiers (about an hundred and fifty-two millions of bushels) furnish the annual supply. A common year produces five millions of setiers (twelve millions and a half of bushels) more, and so much is consequently left for exportation. Lisbon, Holland, Hamburgh, Germany, Switzerland, and Flanders, consume about three millions of setiers of this stock, and other countries are too fruitful in wheat to require the assistance of France. These three millions of setiers will, he supposes, be worth to the kingdom sixty millions, for they will not be exported if they are not sold for twenty francs each; and it would be barbarous, he thinks, to hinder the exportation of such a trifling object, and to deprive the kingdom of such advantages.

The national assembly will, we hope, consider this subject in a more extensive view, for the ex-minister has neglected many circumstances which would materially influence the decision. It would be at least necessary to guard against bad harvests, and to prevent, under the colour of exporting three million of setiers, the smuggling away much more, which, when the price is raised by this conduct, may be re-imported. Many other objections to the plan may be offered, but we have enlarged on it to show, that rank, fame, and offices, do not always bestow clear and extensive views even on political questions.

The intrigues, which we have mentioned as practised to procure his dismissal, occasioned the 'account which he gave to the king of his administration of foreign affairs, from 1757 to 1770, and of the war from 1761 to 1770.' As the duke's prodigality was so much spoken of, that he was familiarly called 'the executioner of money;' it is a little singular to observe, that in the first of these departments he made very considerable diminutions. The expences in 1757 and 1758, he tells

tells us, amounted to fifty-seven millions, and in 1759 they were reduced to twenty-four; in 1763 (but the war was at that time terminated) to fourteen millions; and in 1764 to somewhat less than eleven millions. The reductions in the army are connected with the new arrangement, in modern language the new organization of the army, and we find it would be difficult to render this subject intelligible within moderate limits.

A project of finance to liquidate the national debt, and to lessen the expences of the king, follows. This project is dated April, 1787. The first part of it relates to the change of forms and opinions. The king of Prussia, he observes, has made a new revolution in tactics, and the discipline of the troops; he has '*centupled*' the pieces of cannon, which were used to follow armies in 1741; and, in the marine, the vessels of England, France, and *even Spain*, are very different in construction from those built an hundred years since. We believe, however, that France first led the way in the construction of large ships, but they have been improved by the English artists, and rendered more manageable. Those who saw the *Victory*, the *Royal George*, and *Charlotte*, under way in the late naval armament, would suppose that, with English artists, there were no limits to the size of ships. They worked with as little straining as a frigate: the late first-rates built in France are said to be constructed also in a masterly manner. But these innovations, adds the duke, have overwhelmed every nation with debts. His plan of liquidation is too visionary to deserve a moment's attention, and its length would require too extensive details. The observations on the establishment of provincial assemblies we shall also pass over, as containing circumstances of local importance.

On the whole, though these volumes do not fully deserve the title prefixed, they contain many remarks of importance, and many anecdotes equally entertaining and curious. We shall conclude our Article with some candid and judicious remarks of a French Journalist, which appeared in the *Chronicle of Paris* very soon after the publication of this work.

'With respect to the duke de Choiseul, we pretend neither to accuse nor to justify him. His political conduct was certainly reprehensible, and, as a minister, his abuse of authority, so common under a ministerial reign, was sometimes observable; but he had, perhaps, better abilities, as much pride, and more nobleness of soul, than any minister of his period. He loved the arts and literature, though he sometimes oppressed those who did them honour. He bore his disgrace with sufficient dignity, and his court at Chanteloupe was often more

brilliant

brilliant than it had been at Versailles in the days of his highest favour. We have seen, in a turret raised in his garden, the names of these illustrious strangers engraved on a tablet of marble, and we know not whether it was not a species of vanity which led him to perpetuate the homage thus paid to a disgraced minister. The public opinion accuses him of being one of the first who countenanced enormous expences, and dug the gulph into which our finances are fallen. The accounts which he gives, however, in these volumes, appear economical, and point out considerable reductions, the accuracy of which cannot now be ascertained. These memoirs will serve to establish the reputation of certain noblemen, and particularly of M. Foulon, whom the duke has described in colours which his reputation has verified.'

Histoire de l'Academie Royale des Sciences, Année 1786.

(Concluded from p. 463.)

VARIOUS astronomical memoirs follow the description of the aïlanthus. which concluded our last Article, and of these we can only transcribe the titles, for they do not admit of an abridgment.

The fifth memoir on the theory of Mercury, by M. de la Lande, in which the principal elements are rectified by new observations.

Extract of astronomical and physical observations, made at the Royal Observatory in 1786; M. le Comte de Cassini directeur; M. M. Nouet de Villeneuve and Ruelle, pupils,—continued from the volume for the year 1784.

A memoir on the motion of the fifth satellite of Saturn, by M. de la Lande.

On the equation of the satellites of Jupiter, whose period is 437 days, by M. de la Lande.

On the secular equations of the sun and moon, by the same.

On the mass of Venus and the value of the equations of the sun, produced by Venus and the moon, by the same.

On the equation of Mars and his mean motion, by the same.

Observations of Mars in quadrature, to verify his distance from the sun, by the same.

On the inclination and the node of the orbit of Jupiter, by the same.

Observations of the planets at the Military School, in 1784 and 1785, with a mural quadrant of seven feet and a half radius, by M. de Agelet, one of the astronomers who accompanied M. de la Peyrouse in his last voyage.

We can speak at a little greater length on the next memoir,
by

by M. Fougeroux de Bondaroy, on the stoves proper for the preservation of grain. Wheat, well preserved, scarcely loses its farinaceous property for many years: at Metz it was found good after two centuries, and at Sedan after an hundred and ten years. The stoves by carrying off the superfluous moisture contribute greatly to its preservation, though the operation should be carefully conducted, lest instead of preserving the wheat it should be malted. Washing the wheat, which is in part smutty, with care, will prevent also, our author tells us, any disagreeable taste in the bread.

M. Monge has made some experiments on the effects of electrical sparks taken in a medium of fixed air. If this medium is very pure and confined by mercury, the first effect is an augmentation of its bulk, so that on an average, a column of thirty-four inches was expanded an inch and a half: the augmentation continues to increase long after the electrification is finished. If the exciter is of iron, it is calcined during the operation, and a black powder tarnishes the surface of the mercury, and fixes on the glass. The augmentation arises from the introduction of a new fluid, which is to the fixed air in the proportion of 14 to 21 nearly, and appears to be inflammable air. It arises, in our author's opinion, from the decomposition of the water, which forms one of the component parts of the fixed air, and partly from the calcination of the mercury, which M. Monge supposes is dissolved in the fixed air: the calcination of the mercury is proved from the black powder deposited. In these instances the vital air is absorbed by the calces, and the inflammable air remains. Our author is at great pains to show that this strong fact by no means assists the doctrine of phlogiston, a doctrine that is every day losing some of its ablest advocates; but his arguments in this respect are not convincing.

The chief merit of M. Portal's treatment of the hydrophobia, in the next memoir, consists in combining mercurial frictions with antispasmodics, paying at the same time every attention to the state of the wound, by suppuration, bleeding with leeches, &c. Excision, he thinks, can never be performed soon enough to prevent the disease: but, in this respect, he is evidently mistaken, and his analogy from the small-pox is as inapplicable as his experiment is indecisive. For the particular antispasmodic medicines, and his mode of treatment, he refers to a separate publication which we have not seen. One instance of an hydrophobia, evidently commenced, is given, in which his plan was completely successful. As a caustic the butter of antimony, he remarks, liquifies and penetrates more freely than any other.

M. Brouffonnet has described and delineated the voilier, a species of fish little known. It is the animal which in the common English books of natural history is called the sword-fish, but has been hitherto very imperfectly described. The species before us is remarkable for the vast size of the dorsal fin, which must make its progress very rapid; though there is another species of this genus, which is not peculiar in this respect.

M. du Hamel's observations on smelting ores of iron are curious and useful. The rich ores are found, he tells us, not to produce in smelting a proportional quantity of metal, and often not so much as the poorer ores; and to increase the product, the latter are often added to the former. This arises from the smelters not putting in a sufficient proportion of the flux, or not adding a flux of a proper nature to fuse the ore.

The examination of a green cupreous sand follows. It was brought from Peru by M. Danby, and the commissioners named for the purpose of analyzing it were M. M. duke of Rochefoucault, Baumé, and de Fourcroy. It appeared to be a very rich cupreous calx, united with a little muriatic acid, mixed with a quartzose sand, and some atoms of iron. The calx has a strong attractive power for vital air, after it has been separated from it by fire. M. Berthollet has examined the sand also, and discovered the same principles; but the proportions found in his experiments were a little different.

M. du Hamel describes some crystallizations of lead, found among the scorix of a furnace at Olonne, resembling the crystals of bismuth: they are, however, wholly sulphurated lead.

The adulteration of cyders in Normandy, we have already remarked in this Appendix, has occasioned much enquiry. The subject has been referred also to commissioners appointed by the Royal Academy, who are M. M. Cadet, Lavoisier, Baumé, Berthollet, and D'Arcet. We have already given the outline of the subject, and the result of this enquiry differs little from that of the Royal Society of Medicine. It is, however, given in this place at a greater length, and the principal difference we perceive is, that the commissioners of the Academy are of opinion that the earthy matter will not destroy the appearances of the liquor probatorius, by concealing the brown colour produced by the precipitated lead. As this colour, however, though certainly produced by lead, may perhaps arise from other substances, which may be innocently and accidentally combined with cyder, they advise, before any severe punishment be inflicted, that the extract should be calcined, and the metal discovered by reduction.

The count de Cassini's memoir on the temperature of sub-

terreanous caverns we have noticed at some length in our Foreign Intelligence of last year. (Crit. Rev. vol. Lxx. p. 195.)

M. Cornette has examined, with a little more accuracy than usual, a very common operation, that of separating the volatile alkali from sal ammoniac. The quantity of lime added is usually equal to that of chalk when the mild earth is employed; but the proportion is evidently too great, and increases unnecessarily the expence of vessels and fire. Equal parts is a proportion rather too large; and increasing the quantity of lime does not make the volatile salt more penetrating. Three parts of chalk to one of the neutral is the most advantageous proportion, and the quantity of concrete salt is nearly equal to that of the crude sal ammoniac. The increase of weight, our author shows to be in some degree owing to the water combined, but more particularly to the fixed air. The oily matter of the crude salt is sufficiently conspicuous in various experiments, however pure it may at first appear. When the volatile salt is prepared with alkali, about a part and a half of the alkali is a little more than sufficient to decompose one part of sal ammoniac. The mineral alkali is equally useful with the vegetable, but the crystallization is easier, and the crystals somewhat different in their form.

M. Cornette's next memoir is on the mercurius dulcis (calomel). As mixing the running mercury with the corrosive sublimate is very difficult and injurious to the operator, our author endeavoured to unite the precipitate of mercury from the nitrous acid, by the fixed alkali, to the muriated mercury; but, as in the turbith mineral, no washing could wholly separate the acid, and the different degrees of volatility prevented their uniting in sublimation. When precipitated with the volatile alkali, the process was more successful. But it seems as if the first precipitate, in which the acid was loosened by the heat, was united to the volatile alkali, though the operation will, it is said, succeed by employing the volatile alkali in the first precipitation. Our author adds some remarks on a subject disputed between M. Monnet and M. Baumè. Lemerier had said that corrosive sublimate might be procured by the simple union of two parts of common salt with one of mercury; Baumè on attempting it failed. If the salt is perfectly pure it will not succeed, and Monnet succeeded only in employing the culinary salt, and a precipitate from nitrated mercury, which still contains a portion of the nitrous acid, and the necessary ingredient pure air.

M. de Fourcroy communicates a new method of procuring phlogisticated air in great plenty, which is from the air-vessels of fish: in the common methods it is obtained with difficulty, and is impure.

The same author continues his description of the mucous capsules, and this fourth part relates to the capsules proper to the tendons around, or in the neighbourhood of, the articulation of the femur with the os innominatum. This article, like the three former, is wholly incapable of abridgement.

The new observations follow on Diplantidian telescopes or telescopes with a double image, designed to enable astronomers to observe directly the passage of the center of a star over the meridian, without being prevented from the means of calculating the passage, by observing the contact of the two limbs with the thread of the telescope. The memoir consists of tables to facilitate the construction, and some observations on Boscovich's solution of the problem, which our author, M. Jeaurat, contends is a solution only of a particular case of it.

The same author communicates some arguments to prove, in opposition to the opinion of M. de la Lande, that, in the reduction of the observations of a planet passing over the sun, the aberration of the sun only, and not of the planet, is to be considered, as the latter is not at all illuminated.

The abbe Tessier's memoir on the means of discovering all the more important objects of cultivation in different parts of Europe, and particularly in France, is curious and important. We can only mark the outline, and select a few of the facts. The object of the abbé was to know with accuracy each of the species and varieties of plants cultivated in large quantities, for the nourishment of men and of cattle, and for the uses of the artists. The enquiries were extensive, and the different seeds were sown under the author's direction. Where they would not grow, the plants, or such large portions of them as would contribute to a knowledge of their habit, were brought to the abbé.

Wheat was, as may be expected, the most common seed; and our author can distinguish, he tells us, thirty different species or varieties. They are, in general, reducible to the tender or the hard seeds. The first have a fine husk, a white and copious flour, and resist cold most vigorously. The second is the inhabitant of warmer climates, on the south of France, as Avignon, Provence, and Languedoc, where it has been introduced from Africa and the Levant. It was the hard kind that our author received from Egypt, Syria, Athens, Malta, Sardinia, Sicily, different parts of Italy, Piedmont, Portugal, and Spain. The seeds are small, almost brittle, and transparent.

Of rye there is but one species, and the chief difference is, that the seed sown before winter produces the largest grains: this fact applies to all the other kinds of corn. Rye came from every country; but in good land they sow it rather for the

straw than the grain. In light ground, as Britany, Sologne, the mountains of Auvergne and of Gevaudan, Liege, some of the cantons of Switzerland, Germany, Bohemia, and in the Canaries, it is only sown in quantities.

There are eight sorts of barley; the double rows are chiefly from the south, and these require two months for their vegetation. Oats sometimes require four months, and ten sorts are distinguishable, particularly discriminated by the colour of the grains, their disposition, their size, and their length. The rice our author has sent to Corsica, as it will not grow in France; and he is not yet informed of the events. Maiz is not originally a grain of Europe: it has been cultivated in America, in Italy, in Spain, in the Morea, and the Canary Islands; in the drained Pontine marshes it is said to have flourished with luxuriance. It is cultivated in some of the provinces of France, but its use is not likely to be extensive.

The greater millet (sorgho or bearded wheat) ripens at Montpellier, but scarcely at Paris: it is known only in the southern climates of France. The buck-wheat is common in the north of Europe, and not unknown in the northern provinces of France. The Siberian wheat lately introduced is of this kind; and a third kind, called the Chinese, has been sent to our author, which he promises to describe when he shall be better acquainted with it. The oeconomic plants, and the aromatic ones, as the anise, coriander, fennel, and cummin, chiefly from the warm climates, are next mentioned, most of which are cultivated in France. Of the artificial grasses, the perennial ones are chiefly cultivated in the north, the annuals in the south. The perennial trefoils are confined to England, Holland, Germany, and the north of France. The annual to the south of France, Nice, the Papal territories, &c. France is said to be most attentive to lucerne. The saintfoin is well adapted to poor ground; but the Spanish kind will scarcely bear the cold of France. Sicily, Italy, Spain, and Malta, cultivate it in abundance. The spergula is confined to the sandy grounds of Holland, Liege, and Riga. The edible roots, as fodder, are chiefly cultivated in the north; but, with respect to potatoes, the abbé mentions a singular fact. Though a root of America it has been found to degenerate at New York, and the farmers, instead of applying to the native soil, have sent for seed to Ireland. The lesser grains, for the use of cattle, birds, and the different arts, scarcely afford any remark of importance.

‘ To give an idea of the utility of these labours to the botanist, I shall add some examples relating to the different names adopted to express the same plant. I find, 1st, that the plant called

called the American rye in Maryland, the Polonese wheat of Georgia in Russia, is known in France under the name of *Triticum Polonicum*: it is a corn with white ears, very long husks, and long grains: 2dly, that the grano duro of Florence, the farro of Genoa, the frumento forte of Palermo, and the olle of the whole coast of Barbary, is a corn with rough bearded ears, of which the husk is thick and close, the seed hard and semi-transparent: 3dly, that the trigo sancto of Spain and of the Canaries, that the corn called the Turkey wheat in Poland, the wheat of miracles, of Providence; and Smyrna, in different countries, is a corn with barbed, rough, hairy ears, and a white wrinkled grain: 4thly, that the touzelle of Languedoc, of Provence, Avignon, and Nice; the grano tozella of Genoa, the richette of Termini in Sicily, is, in general, a corn without beards, with a smooth white husk, and white long grains: 5thly, that the corn of Breton, and the large corn of Sologne, are only rye: 6thly, that the fourciron is a barley of five or six rows, and the paumole one of two rows: 7thly, that the polystic naked barley is called orge a café at Savarne and Phalsburgh, orge-riz at Montbrison, orge du perou at Thionville, Brignoles, and Marueje; orge d'Espagne at Saverne and Thionville; orge de Siberie at Florence; Syrian rye in Russia, mountain wheat at Fort-Aventure, one of the Canary Islands; and epeautre, in Poland. I find also from my catalogues, that the same names are also given to plants which have no resemblance; for example, that of millet to Turkish wheat, to buck wheat, and many other kinds.

M. Lavoisier's Reflections on the Decomposition of Water by vegetable and animal Substances follows; but this memoir we have long ago noticed, and it was read so long since, that the substance of it has been given in many different publications.

M. M. de Laffonne and Cornette communicated also in 1786 a memoir on the nature of the saline acid substance drawn from cherries, gooseberries, peaches, apricots, strawberries, mulberries, apples, pears, buckthorn-berries, and pomegranates. All these were found to be acid, reddening the blue tinctures of vegetables, dissolving with difficulty in water, effervescing with alkalis, and forming with them salts susceptible of crystallization. They all gave the sel de seignette with the mineral alkali, and the soluble tartar with fixed alkalis. They burned on fiery coals with the smell of cream of tartar, and, like it, were soluble by means of berax. In reality, as we well know, the salt was cream of tartar, salt of woodsorrel, &c. according to the degree of phlogistication.

J. P. Maraldi's Observations on the Satellites of Jupiter at
M m 2 Perinaldo

Perinaldo in 1786; the 'Memoirs on the Integrations by Arcs of an Ellipse,' by M. le Gendre; the 'Description of a Mill to grind Potatoes for making starch or hair-powder,' by M. Baumé; and 'Researches on the Integration of a singular species of Equation,' by M. Charles, are incapable of abridgment.

M. Broussonet's 'Observations on the Regeneration of some Parts of the Bodies of Fish,' the 'Continuation of an Essay to ascertain the Population of the kingdom' (of France) by M. M. du Sejour, le marquis de Condorcet and de la Place; and the 'Observations on the Carbonic Acid furnished by the Fermentation of Raisins,' by M. Chaptal, we have formerly noticed at some length. These conclude the volume before us: that for 1787 is published, which we hope to take up very soon.

Notices et Extraits des Manuscrits de la Bibliotheque du Roi, lus au Comte etabli par sa Majeste dans l'Academie Royale des Belles Lettres. Tom. II. 4to. Paris.

AS this volume has now been published two years, we fear the translators of the former have overlooked it, or dropped the original design; and, as the third volume is published, and the fourth begun, we must hasten our account, lest the academicians should publish faster than we are able to follow. Many of the manuscripts are trifling, and consequently the account is short, but the oriental ones, as they contain works unknown to Europeans in general, are examined at a greater extent. We shall first transcribe the table of contents, and then enlarge on a few of the most important works.

I. An Account of a Work of Bernard Guido, entitled Flores Chronicorum. By M. Brequigny.

II. Pearls of Wonders, or Miscellaneous Pieces of Geography and Natural History, by Zeineddin-Omar, Son of Aboul-Modhaffer, surnamed Ebn Alouardi, a Writer of the thirteenth Century. By M. de Guignes.

III. The Conference at Calais in 1521. By M. Gaillard

IV. Continuation of Negotiations: 1. Of Forget de Fresne in Spain in 1589; 2. Of M. de Lomenie, Secretary of State in Navarre, sent by the King to the Queen of England in 1595; 3. Of M. M. de Bouillon and de Sancy in England in 1596, for a League offensive and defensive against Spain. By M. Gaillard.

V. The Book of Pearls, collected from the Abridgement of the History of Ages, or an Abridgment of Universal History, by Schiehabeddin-Ahmed al Mokri al Phassi. By M. Sylvestre de Sacy.

VI. Joms-Wickinge, Saga sive Historia Jonisburgensium seu Juliniensium, ex antiqua Lingua Islandica & Norvegica in Latinam translata. By M. de Keralio.

VII. An

VII. An Account of a Manuscript, containing the History of Britany, under the Title of *Chronicon Briocense*. By M. de Brequigny. With another Latin Chronicle by Gilles de Musfit. By the same.

VIII. Account of the different Articles, No. 5696. 1. The Trojan History of Guido de Columpnis: 2. The Letter of Pope Honorius III. to the Emperor Frederic II. 3. From Pope Boniface VIII. to the Clergy of France. 4. From the Romans to Pope John XXII. 5. *Sallas Malespina Libri VI. Rerum Sicularum*. 6. *Diatriba* against Louis of Bavaria. 7. Letters of Pope Innocent III. 8. From the same to the King of England John *. 9. A Letter of Edward III. King of England to Pope Benedict XII. 10. French Chronicle.

IX. History of the Kings of Persia, of the Kalifs of different Families of Zingis Kan, by Nikbi Ben Massoud. By Sylvestre de Sacy.

X. An Account of what is most remarkable in the World, and of the Wonders of the all-powerful King, by Abdorrahmid, Son of Saleh, Son of Nouri, surnamed Yakouli. By M. Guignes.

XI. An Account of the Journal of Paris of Grassis, Master of the Ceremonies of the Chappels of Pope Julius II. and Leo X. in their respective Pontificates, with a Supplement. By M. Brequigny.

XII. The Journal of John Francis Firman, Master of the Ceremonies of the Pope's Chappel, in the Pontificates of Clement VII. Paul III. Julius III. Marcellus II. Pius IV. and V. By the same.

XIII. Journal of Corneille Firmano, Master of the Apostolic Ceremonies in the Pontificates of Pius IV. and V. and Gregory XII. By the same.

XIV. Account of a Part of the Journal of John Paul Mucante, Master of the Apostolic Ceremonies in the Pontificate of Leo XI. By the same.

XV. Account of a Greek Manuscript, No. 1277. By M. Rochefort.

From this table the variety of information, which seems to be the study of the commissioners, is sufficiently conspicuous, and their particular attention to those manuscripts which can illustrate history is highly laudable. Let us follow them in their order.

I. Bernard Guido was born in 1260, and was the author of many different works, but the most important is his Chronicle. M. de Brequigny engages in many curious details respecting

* He is styled Jean Santerre (Lackland).

Guido, his works, as well as the sources from whence he drew them, and thinks that if any author was to publish new lives of the popes, the Chronicle would be of the highest importance. From the manuscripts in the king's library, this attempt may, he supposes, be executed with much greater exactness than any other history of the same kind hitherto undertaken. What relates to the history of France, in the Chronicle, should not be now neglected.

II. Ebn-Alouardi lived, it is supposed, in the thirteenth century. The work is in Arabic, and contains a miscellaneous collection of geography and natural history. The oriental authors are fond of connecting these two sciences, and, accustomed to give their works pompous titles, like this before us, which have no connection with the subject. There are in the library nine manuscripts of this work, all of which M. de Guignes has examined and given an account of. A short extract from it is given by the same author in the *Journal des Savans* of 1758. In general, the work of Ebn-Alouardi contains some curious details concerning Africa, which the Arabians have penetrated, and are consequently acquainted with its interior parts. They traversed it in every direction so far as Sofala, where they carried on a considerable trade. The Arabian author, speaking of Lisbon, mentions an expedition undertaken by the Mahometans, with a design of discovering the extent of the Atlantic Ocean, and to find out whether there were any countries beyond it. They returned without making any discovery. There are some particulars respecting Arabia, and other countries, in this account, which would extend our article too far. If we are permitted to return to it in an English translation, we shall be more minute in our extracts from this and a few of the more singular articles.

III. The Conferences of Calais were undertaken with a view to put an end to the war between Francis I. and Charles V. Our Henry was the mediator; but they were useless. In the Historical Library of France it is said that the author was Nicholas Mende, but M. Gaillard assures us that he is neither mentioned nor described in this work, and the reason for introducing his name is not known. It was written in Latin, but the French translation only remains: it pretends to great accuracy, as the speeches are said to have been taken from the mouths of the different personages; but it seems to be dry and unentertaining.

IV. The object of the first negotiation was to justify Henry III. from the imputation of the murder of the Guises, to secure the interest of foreign powers, and to obtain some assistance from them. The instructions given to M. du Fresne are

printed in the third volume of *Memoirs of State*, at the end of those of de Villeroy; but the narrative of the voyage, the detail of the negotiation, the letters relating to the embassy, &c. are still in manuscript: M. Gaillard gives an abstract of them, and corrects the mistakes of historians. The second negotiation relates to the union of Henry IV. and Elizabeth against Philip II. of Spain. But the interest of Henry was first to conquer his capital, and expel his enemies to the frontiers; that of Elizabeth, on the contrary, was to drive the Spainards from the maritime provinces in the neighbourhood of England, from whence they might make a descent on this island. This was Elizabeth's first wish, and she reproaches Henry for not having fulfilled his engagements in this respect. The third negociation is on the same subject.

V. The first of this author's surnames relates to his profession; Al Mokri signifies a doctor who teaches to read the Alcoran; Al Fassi, that he was from Fez in Africa. M. de Sacy suspects that he flourished near the beginning of the sixteenth century. There are two copies of this work in the king's library, of which the one numbered 769 is improperly in the printed catalogue, and the accounts of the head of a manuscript, entitled the *Chronicle of Ebnkhaldoun*. The first part of this work relates to the traditions respecting the history of the world, from the creation to the birth of Mahomet: many of these fancies seem to have been borrowed from the rabbis. He speaks also of the religion of the antient Arabians. The second part is the history of Mahomet, but contains no new information. The third, the history of the Mussulmen and their conquests. All the facts however are mentioned slightly, though the author's account of the manners, the characters of the princes, and their zeal for religion would deserve a better character, if he had not been too fond of frivolous and uninteresting tales. We scarcely find in this history even the names of the dynasties which destroyed the empire of the caliphs, yet the author's descriptions of the manners of these princes might afford some useful hints to the historian. The Mahometans expect that a descendant of Ali will appear some time before the end of the world to establish justice; and many persons have pretended to be this descendant, under the title of Mahadi, whose names, &c. M. de Sacy points out.

After having followed the history of the caliphs to the taking of Bagdat, and given a very short account of the second dynasty of these princes residing in Egypt, the Phathemites and Ayoubites, the author goes on to the history of Barbary, which is more extensive and more interesting. M. de Sacy attends to the facts least known, and which, in some degree, illustrate

the history of the country. He treats of the origin of the people styled Berbers, of their dispersion in Africa, of the conquest of Barbary by the Arabs, and finishes the work by the history of the Zcrides and the Almoravides, who reigned in Africa and Spain.

VI. The Icelandic History has never been printed. It is an abridgment of another work, the whole substance of which it contains, but the abridger has added numerous other circumstances, drawn from the Icelandic traditions, which some authors consider as wholly fabulous, and only fit for amusement; others think them proper narratives, and a proper foundation for a history of Denmark and Sweden. They describe the manners of the times at least seemingly with accuracy, and under this point of view form an interesting part of history. We have several similar descriptions in the poets of the North, translated into our own language: their courage is savage and barbarous, and their manners in general seem to be too much tinged with the asperity of the climate.

The first events are supposed to have happened in the year 810 of the Christian æra. Two Norwegians, attendants on Gormon king of Denmark, find on the banks of a river a child wrapped in purple linen, and its head bound with a filken fillet, in the middle of which was a ring of gold. They present it to Gormon, who educates it, and calls it Canut. This Canut became king of Denmark, and had a son whom he called Gormon, in remembrance of his benefactor. Christianity was established in Denmark in 924, after several victories obtained by the emperor Otho. M. Keralio mentions in this account several incursions of the Danes in the neighbouring countries, and some very singular adventures. The chiefs or sovereigns of these northern countries carried their piratical expeditions so far as Scotland and Ireland. A certain Palnatoko, in one of these incursions went to Vandalia, where he built the city of Joninsberg. He framed laws, and obliged all who settled there to swear to observe them. One of the most singular of his institutions was the exclusion of women; and all the inhabitants were sworn to celibacy; their courage was undoubted, and their piratical excursions rendered them formidable to their neighbours. We can easily guess at their manners from this circumstance; the name of Vandal remains still a term of reproach.

VII. This work is attributed to Pierre le Baud; but Peter died in 1505, and this Chronicle was written an hundred and ten years earlier. M. M. Labinau and Morice have given some extracts from this Chronicle; but the author of the 'account' points out several of their omissions, and shows the utility of a
more

more complete edition of the Catalogue. What relates to the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, and the campaign of the Christians against the Turks in 1396, are the most important parts of these omissions, which can only be restored from the manuscript.

The Latin Chronicle has been called the Chronicle of Flanders; but it contains many circumstances, not peculiar to that country. The author, called in the catalogue Gilles de Muis, and by some biographers Ægidius Mucidus, was born in Tournay, about the year 1269. He composed many works in Latin and French in verse as well as in prose; but none have yet been printed. M. de Brequigny thinks that this Chronicle, from which he extracts some interesting details, ought to make a part of the collection of the historians of France. The author, he adds, has the peculiar merit, peculiar for his æra, of distinguishing the degree of the certainty of the facts which he relates; those, for instance, which he relates from common report, from witnesses worthy of credit, and from his own knowledge.

VIII. It is unnecessary to explain this account any farther.

IX. The extract from this work is very extensive. The work itself is divided into four parts; the first contains the History of the ancient Kings of Persia; the second, that of the Dynasty of the Semanides; the third, the History of Mahomet, and of the Caliphs his Successors, to the æra of their Destruction; the fourth that of some of the Dynasties which rose in the Empire of the Caliphs, particularly of the Soffarides, the Samanides, the Ghaznevides, the Bouides, the Kharizmians, and Zingis Khan. M. de Sacy follows the author in each part, and shows in what manner he has treated his subject. On the second part he is very copious, and examines each reign, avoiding as much as possible what occurs in the *Bibliothèque Orientale*. He is equally extensive in his account of Mahomet, and examines shortly what is said of the caliphs. With respect to the other dynasties the manuscript appears to be defective, from the blunders of the copyist. The Kharizmians are only described, and the others noticed very concisely. What relates to Zingis Khan is more copious. In general this work furnishes many circumstances of oriental history with which we are little acquainted; and M. de Sacy not only points them out, but gives a very curious abstract of the whole.

X. In the edition of the *Minores Geographi Græci*, some short extracts are given from the Arabian geographers. M. de Guignes in this 'account' is more copious, and the very extensive extracts which he gives will almost supersede the original

original work. The author's real name is Bakoni, from the city of Bakon, on the Caspian, where he was born, and his work is an abridgment of another treatise of geography by Lazvini, which will be afterwards noticed, and what Bakoni has added will be distinguished. The abridger of Lazvini lived about the year 1413, and he has divided his abstract into seven parts, comprehending the seven climates. In each he enumerates, in alphabetical order, the names of a great number of cities, of which he gives a short description, and generally the longitude and latitude. The analysis of many other treatises of geography, in which other circumstances respecting the same cities occur, compared with these descriptions, will give us a more accurate idea of the state of Asia in the middle ages than we have yet received. In this 'Account' we perceive all the places of which the orientals had any knowledge; the different countries in which their trade was carried on, particularly India and China; the objects of their commerce; and the principal productions of each province.

XI. Paris de Grassis, whose Journal next occurs, was the successor of Burcard, whose Journal is inserted in the first volume. Rainaldi examined and made some use of de Grassis's Journal in his *Annales Ecclesiastici*; and M. de Brequigny confines himself to the more interesting anecdotes, without repeating what Rainaldi has said. The author was of Bologna. In the manuscript there is an omission of what passed from May 1505 to June 1506, which is supplied in the volume before us, from the manuscript of Vatreau, and the whole of what is omitted is printed at the end of the account. The Journals in the three following numbers are not of great importance.

XV. These Fables are twenty-eight in number, and seem never to have been published; though, on the whole, they contain nothing very new. The style is, however, very different from that of the other collections; and this variety occasions some comparisons, which will be very interesting to the lovers of Grecian literature. If the world had not been deprived of the able author of this account, we might have expected a more extensive harvest of the same kind. We trust his successor will be equally able and diligent.

Histoire Naturelle des Serpens. Par M. le Comte de Ceppe de Garde de Cabinet du Roi, &c. Tom II. 4to.

WE gave a short account of the first volume of this work in our LXVth volume, p. 240.; but the importance of this before us, renders it necessary to be a little more particular in our examination. 'This is a continuation of the former work,

work, say the commissioners of the Royal Academy of Sciences, appointed to examine it. The count de Cépède treats of more than one hundred and seventy-five species of serpents, of which more than twenty-two have never yet been described by any author, and several others only slightly mentioned by travellers and naturalists. It is principally in the collection of the king's cabinet that the count has seen the species that were hitherto unknown, or imperfectly described.' After a short eulogium, equally pathetic, animated, and true, on the count de Buffon, after scattering some flowers on the tomb of his eloquent predecessor, our author begins with the general history of serpents, and describes their external form as well as their internal structure, their general properties and functions. Among these, he mentions the torpor of serpents during the winter, which is confined to the smaller kinds, as the larger species of the torrid zone never experience sufficient cold to diminish their vital motion.

'They rouse from their annual sleep, says the count, when the first warmth of spring begins to be felt; but what is singular, these animals, as well as other oviparous quadrupeds, and almost all animals that sleep during the winter, awake and recover life when the air is less warm than that which would not in the autumn support their activity and animation. These animals have been observed to retire to their winter habitations and their sleep, when the air was of the same heat that gave them life in the spring. Whence comes this difference in the effects of the heat of the spring and autumn? Why does the same degree of heat produce a higher degree of activity in animals at the end of winter? It is that the heat of spring is not the sole agent that re-animates and sets sleeping animals in motion. At this season, the atmosphere is not only warmer, but full of electrical fluid, which is dissipated with the storms of summer; and for this reason, we do not hear in the autumn such violent storms or such loud thunder, though the heat is not diminished. The electrical fire is one of the great agents which nature employs to animate living beings. It is not, therefore, surprising, that when it abounds in the atmosphere, animals already moved by this powerful agent, should want only, for their more perfect re-animation, that degree of heat, which, unassisted, left them torpid. The greater part of animals which have sufficient internal heat to prevent this torpor, and even man, find a difference between the action of the heat of spring and autumn. They have more vital force, more internal activity in the beginning of spring than at the commencement of winter, because, though equally susceptible of the influence of the electrical fluid, its action is more powerful in the former season.'

We have selected this passage and translated it closely, not only as a specimen of the count's manner, which may appear a little too prolix, but as it gives a different reason for the same fact, from that which M. Girtanner had assigned; but there seem to be various arguments, besides this fact, for supposing that repressed irritability produces an excess of the power; while the superior accumulation of electricity in the spring, and its effects in occasioning increased animation, require additional support.

It is in the preliminary discourse that we meet with the general remarks on the internal organization of serpents. Their bony skeleton is composed of a long string of vertebræ, which extend to the tail. The apophyses or protuberances of these vertebræ are placed in such a manner as not to impede the motion of the animal in any direction, or prevent its folding itself in the minutest rings. Indeed the vertebræ of almost every reptile are very moveable, for the posterior extremity of each is a kind of sphere, which enters into a corresponding cavity in the next vertebra. Their jaws are very large, and connected by ligaments, which are easily distended.

Serpents may be distinguished into two principal classes, viviparous and oviparous; but when we examine farther, we shall find that the former differ greatly from viviparous quadrupeds, for every serpent is produced from an egg, and in some instances only, are the young ones hatched before they are excluded. For this reason, by a minute change of terms, they are styled viviparous, and the great line of distinction is, that they are not nourished by vessels from the mother, but by the substance of the egg, and they differ from other oviparous animals, by the egg being hatched by internal heat, not by incubation, as those of fowls; by the heat of the sun, as those of turtles; or by that of fermentation, as the eggs of some serpents, which are laid in dunghills. The copulation of serpents is long, as they have no seminal reservoir.

The lungs of these animals are very extensive, and as they can absorb a large quantity of air, they have no occasion for breathing frequently. Instead of regularly dilating and contracting the chest, they breath with quickness, and expire very slowly. The heart is composed only of a single ventricle; but the other viscera are almost as numerous as in the most perfect animals. They have an œsophagus usually very long, and capable of great dilatation; a very large stomach; a liver with its attendant receptacle of bile; a pancreas; very long intestines, which by their circumvolutions, different diameters, and kinds of transverse separations, which they contain, form numerous distinct portions like the large intestines of viviparous animals,
and

and end in a strait portion of intestine, not unlike the rectum. They have two kidneys whose ureters do not terminate in a bladder, but, like those of birds, into a common cloaca: in the same reservoir the genital parts of the male are placed, and in this receptacle also the tubes from the ovaria open. On these accounts it is difficult to ascertain their sex from external appearances. 'Almost all the scales that cover serpents, and particularly the larger laminæ that are situated beneath their bodies, move independent of each other: the animal can replace each of these laminæ by a particular muscle connected with it. Each of these pieces, therefore, in rising and sinking becomes a sort of foot, by means of which they find a resistance, and consequently a fixed point, which enables them to run, and even leap, in the direction which they choose. But serpents move also by a more powerful agent: they raise a portion of their body into an arc of a circle, and draw the two extremities of this arc, which rest on the ground, near each other; and when they are almost contiguous, one or other extremity is the rest, from which they dart, by suddenly flattening the arc,' and giving free scope to the elasticity of the ligaments. 'When they wish to advance, it is on the posterior extremity that they rest, and on the anterior when they wish to recede.' The count should have added to this description, that in forming this arc, when they wish to go on, they draw up the posterior extremity; and the contrary when the motion is designed to be retrograde. It is not copied from nature.

The size of these animals varies considerably; some serpents are only a few inches in length; others are thirty, forty, or fifty feet: some are said to be even larger. These vast species are the Boa or the Devir, who swallow deer and even buffaloes, breaking their bones by the power of their own circumvolutions, or by pressing them against trees. The account of the contest between the anacondo of Ceylon, in some descriptions of that island, and the picture of that amazing serpent, are scarcely less surprising than the poetical and fabulous one of the serpents who destroyed Laocoon and his children, in the *Æneid*.

—————immensus orbibus angues

Incumbunt pelago—————

Pectora quorum inter fluctus adrecta jubæque

Sanguinæ exsuperant undas: pars cætera pontum

Pone legit, sinuantque immensa volumina terga.

Æn. Lib. ii. l. 204, &c.

There is another distinction, which we have formerly adverted to, necessary to be made; that between the venomous, and those which are not venomous. The first have two large teeth almost divided by a furrow, and at the base of each is a bladder, full

full of poison more or less subtle, which in biting is compressed, and the poison runs through the furrow into the wound. All the serpents of this class are called *vipers*, because they are almost exclusively *viparous*. The others are *oviparous*, and have not these tusks.

Serpents differ in their hue and the distribution of their colours, as well as in the number, the size, the form, and the arrangement of their scales: these are the characters employed to class them, and Linnæus has made six genera. To these M. Bruyères has added a seventh, under the title of *langaha*; and M. Hornstedt has described an eighth, under the title of the *acrochordus* of Java, which we have mentioned in our LXVIIIth volume, p. 241. M. de la Cèpede has given a methodical table of serpents to facilitate our knowledge: it is divided into ten columns. The first contains the names, the second the names of the plates, the ranges of the scales, the scaly rings which cover the lower part of the body, or the number of duplicatures observable along the sides. The species are arranged according to the number of these large plates, the ranges of smaller scales, the scaly rings under the tail, or the lateral duplicatures. The fourth contains the measure of the whole length; the fifth that of the tail; the sixth relates to the venomous tusks, and whether found in the upper or lower jaw; the seventh points out the defect of the larger scales on the upper part of the head, or the number and arrangement of these large pieces when they occur. On the eighth is marked the forms of the scales on the back; in the ninth some remarkable circumstances in the conformation, and in the tenth the colours.

For want of characters sufficiently numerous and decisive, the author is obliged to break the natural orders, and unite the venomous serpents with those which are not so; and the *oviparous* with the *vipers*. The genera we have already mentioned; it is only necessary to add that they are arranged in the following order: *coluber*, *boa*, *crotalus*, *anguis*, *amphisbæna*, *cæcilia*, *langaha*, and *acrochordus*. The *langaha* has on the lower part of the body, towards the head, plates, (*Scuta* Lin.) and towards the anus, scaly rings: the extremity of the tail is furnished below with very small scales (*Squamæ* Lin.)

In the descriptions of these reptiles, and the account of their manners, the count de la Cèpede has collected what is hitherto known; and his accounts are rendered more valuable by the manuscript communications of M. de la Borde and the baron of Wiederback, correspondents of the king's cabinet, residing at Cayenne, of M. Badier at Guadaloupe, &c. The work, like the former volume, is superbly printed, and adorned with forty-five plates, containing the species not described, or imperfectly

fectly known; and at the head of each genus are the generic characters, &c.—We shall make a few extracts to enable our readers to judge of the execution of the volume.

The naja, or the serpent à Lunette, though superb from the richness of his covering, is one of the most venomous snakes of the East Indies; and, in these countries, there are mountebanks who have courage enough to exhibit them for the curiosity of the people. By means of some particular management, they lessen the bulk of his venom, and even make him perform a kind of dance.

‘The conjurer, observes our author, grasps in his hand a root, which he pretends has a power of preserving him from the effects of the poison; and, taking the animal from the vessel in which he usually keeps him confined, he irritates by holding a stick or his fist towards him. The naja immediately aiming at the hand which attacks him, resting on his tail, raising his body, swelling his neck, lengthening his forked tongue, agitating himself with vivacity, darting fire from his eyes and hisses from his mouth, begins a kind of combat with his master, who, singing a song, occasionally presents his fist, sometimes on the right side and sometimes on the left. The animal, with his eyes always fixed on the hand, ballances his head and body on the tail, which remains immoveable, and forms the resemblance of a sort of dance. The naja can support this exercise for about half a quarter of an hour; but the moment the Indian sees the serpent is fatigued by his upright posture and his motions, he stops his song. The naja ceases his dance and lies on the ground, when the master puts him again into the vessel.’ We must refer to the work for the method of taming these animals, and securing themselves from danger.

The following particular account of the method in which serpents change their skin is curious and new*. ‘The reptile, says our author, must begin by clearing his head, having only the gullet, through which he can escape from this kind of sack. The scales, which cover the jaws, are the first which are inverted, by separating themselves from the palate, and by keeping always united with the scales above and below the head. These last are inverted so far as the gullet, and the head of the serpent may be then seen from the muzzle, to the back part of the eyes, covered with a new skin, and struggling to disengage himself farther from the kind of case in which he is still in a great measure entangled. This envelope continues to be inverted like a glove, in such a manner that, while the real head of the animal advances in a direction to clear itself, the muzzle of the old skin, which is always perfectly entire, ad-

* It is collected from the appearances of an inverted skin, which a serpent had changed.

vances seemingly towards the tail, that the inversion of the old skin may be complete. The eyes are separated as well as the rest of the body; the cornea is detached entire, as well as the scaly brows which surround it, and the form is preserved even in the dried exuvixæ, where a concave surface is distinctly perceived, considering always that it is only the inverted skin. The scales are raised entire, with a part of the epidermis, to which they were attached. This scarf-skin forms a kind of frame round each scale, as well as round each plate, whether great or small. The frame does not go exactly round each scale or plate, but only round that part which is connected with the skin, and which cannot separate from it in the different motions of the animal. These different frames are contiguous, and form a sort of net-work, less transparent than the scales, which seem to fill the intervals with accuracy.' The serpent escapes from his old skin by agitating itself, and rubbing against every thing. Every part is inverted except the last scale of the tail.

If nature seems to have exhausted all its ornaments and riches on such a minute animal as the bird-fly, it has not been less prodigal to a small species of serpent in India, called borga. 'The brightest colours of the richest gems,' says the successor of Buffon, 'and the brilliant splendor of gold' gleam, over the scales of the borga, as well as on the feathers of the bird-fly; and as if, in embellishing these two creatures, nature wished to give art the most perfect model of the most beautiful assortment of colours, the brownest tints scattered over one and the other in the midst of the clearest shades, are managed in such a way as to add by a happy contrast to the brilliancy of the brighter hues.' * * * * * 'We should have but an imperfect idea of the beauty of the borga, if we only fancied this azure and this white agreeably contrasted and relieved by three golden borders: we must imagine all the reflections above and below the body, and the different silver yellow and red tints that they produce. The blue and the white, through which we seem to perceive these tints, beautifully melted down, mix the softness of their shades to the vivacity of their different reflections, so that, when the borga moves, we almost fancy we see through a transparent, and sometimes a bluish crystal, the brilliancy of a long chain of diamonds, emeralds, topasses, saphirs, and rubies. It is remarkable that in the beautiful and burning plains of India, where the crystals and precious stones present the most brilliant shades, that nature has chosen to hide, under the robe of the borga, a faithful image of its richest ornaments.'

The borga is very small in comparison of its length. Its diameter is often only a few lines, when the animal is more

than three feet long: the tail, gradually tapering, and as long almost as the body, resembles a fine needle. The borgia is very active, and, by twisting itself around several times, can dart with rapidity, cling round any thing, rise, descend, and suspend itself. In a moment it can dart from the branches of trees, which it inhabits, the azure and gold of its brilliant scales. This innocent little animal attracts the birds towards it by a kind of hissing, which has been called its song, though our author shows, from the structure of its organs, that it is only a hiss; and it seems to delight in the caresses of the young Indians, suffering itself to be twisted at will in their delicate hands.

We are sorry that our limits will not allow us to mention various other circumstances relative to the œconomy of serpents, as the activity of their senses, the manner of attacking and devouring their prey, their hissing, and the force and address which they employ against formidable enemies. Let us select a short instance of the last, said to be taken from those who had been witnesses of this terrible combat in the burning sands of Africa. We have alluded already to a similar contest in Ceylon.

‘They have seen, said the count, a furious tyger, whose roarings have scattered dread and dismay all around, seize with its talons, tear with its teeth, draw streams of blood from a monstrous serpent, who twisting his vast body, hissing with rage and pain, clasped the tyger in its numerous folds, covered it with its bloody foam, stifled it with its weight, and broke its bones, notwithstanding the most forcible efforts. But the attempts of the tyger were vain, his arms were useless, and he expired in the folds of the enormous reptile, which held it in chains.’

Our author adds the result of some new experiments of Fontana on the poison of vipers, by which he seems to have confirmed his former opinion, that the lunar caustic was its effectual antidote. This volume concludes with some additions to the natural history of the oviparous quadrupeds of the former volume, and a similar approbation is annexed to it. We have extended our article too far to permit us to add many observations. We may, however, remark, that if M. de la Cèpede has been more attentive than M. de Buffon to the methodical divisions and classes of modern naturalists, he resembles him in the force and elegance of his descriptions; in the eloquence, which gave to M. de Buffon the title of the Modern Pliny, and which will fix the character of M. de la Cèpede as a successor worthy of him.

Voyage en Barbarie, ou Lettres écrites de l'Ancienne Numidie, pendant les Années 1785 & 1786, sur la Religion, &c. des Maures & des Arabes Bedouins, avec un Essai sur l'Histoire Naturelle de la Pays. Par M. l'Abbé Poiret. 2 Vols. 8vo.

THE author, in a preliminary discourse, which is an excellent introduction to his work, gives some short historical and geographical ideas on the ancient and modern state of this part of Africa, called Barbary. Inhabited, successively, by Carthaginians, Romans, Moors, Arabs, and Turks, it has been the theatre of many great revolutions, the seat of two powerful empires, the country of an industrious and commercial people, the cradle of many celebrated men. In these deserted countries we sensibly feel the vanity of human greatness. We can scarcely find, with the assistance of the best geographers of antiquity, the seat of the most famous cities, for the fury of war, rather than the scythe of time, has rendered them only an obscure heap of ruins. Agriculture, commerce, and arts are buried under the remains of empires; and the despotism and ignorance which succeeded them, have converted the most beautiful country of the universe into one vast desert. But, without dwelling on the great revolutions which change the lot of the people, our author casts a hasty and philosophic glance on the present state of Barbary, on its first and present inhabitants; as well as the principal cities of which history has preserved the memory, and those which have succeeded them.

We can scarcely avoid stopping a moment, with the abbe Poiret, to survey a peculiar feature of this country, as we have lately travelled over its eastern parts with so interesting a traveller as Mr. Bruce. The interior parts we know contain two vast deserts, which are immense plains of a barren and burning sand, through which the traveller rarely passes, and never without danger. Besides the want of water and of food, impetuous winds sometimes occur, which raise these sands into billows more dangerous than the waves of the sea. In this situation, the most numerous caravans are buried under mountains which come on like the foaming billows of a tempestuous ocean; and, in this moment of fury, vast hills are at once formed, removed, or destroyed; immense gulphs are sunk or filled up. These countries would be uninhabitable, if occasionally there were not some chains of mountains, which afforded springs, and fertilized the barren spot, offering to a few casual inhabitants a cool and tranquil situation. The habitable portions which occur are like islands in the midst of a sea of sand, and have furnished to an author of our own country, perhaps bishop Berkeley, the subject of one of the most pleasing philosophical romances of any age or nation—

Gaudentio.

Gaudentio de Lucca. The inhabitants, as his tale represents them, are wholly separated from the rest of the universe, and acquainted only with the rest of Africa, for of other countries they can have no knowledge, by the accidental emigration and more accidental return of one of their own friends, or the very fortuitous occurrence of a bewildered stranger. Oasis was one of these islands on the side of Egypt, and it is not yet forgotten, as our author supposes. Ammonia was another; but, when the worship of Jupiter Ammon was neglected, the place was forgotten, and its situation is not at present clearly known. When the traveller has crossed the Atlas, in proportion as he advances into the desert, the inhabitable and inhabited places are more rare; and, through a journey of an hundred leagues, neither spring nor verdure is found. Though the winds of this country are not regular, the inhabitants are acquainted with the most dangerous seasons; and sometimes can foresee a storm many days. In such circumstances, the caravan continues in a secure place, or searches for one.

The caravans, however, have other enemies besides the elements: these are wild beasts, and often men. The inhabitants of these burning countries are little known: they are chiefly wandering hordes, composed of untamed Arabs, who are the most cruel and bloody of men. They are ignorant and poor indeed, but they are free, and their freedom and their ignorance are the sources of their happiness: they are no objects of terror to numerous caravans. One goes almost every year from Tunis, composed of three or four hundred men, to reach the negroes in Guinea. They remain many years in this rugged painful journey, and three-fourths are usually lost: sometimes not a single man returns. Their food is so frugal that it is surprising how they support their life. A little meal, moistened in the hollow of the hand with a few drops of water, and made into pellets, is the only sustenance in their most laborious journeys.

Lybia was formerly divided into four parts, but it is difficult, observes M. Poiret, to determine with accuracy what parts of modern Africa correspond to the ancient divisions; his chief object is a comparison of the ancient with the modern inhabitants. As he avoids repeating from other travellers, he does not speak of the great cities which Europeans frequent. He describes only what he saw. It is by going into the tent of the Bedouin Arab, by conversing familiarly with him, that the abbe has studied his character and his manners; that he has observed the difference between a free people and those who groan under the yoke of despotism; between a nation enlightened by laws and sciences, and wandering hordes,

debased by every degradation of corrupted nature, equally insensible to the incitements of ambition or glory. The author, whose heart seems to be as humane as his mind is cultivated, finishes the preliminary discourse by a tribute of respect to two men who first guided his steps in the study of nature, M. M. Forestier and Neret.

The traveller, in his first letter, speaks of the Royal African Company, established at Marseilles, and their first factory, which after the failure of the English they left and removed to the English establishment at La Calle, situated on a small barren rock, thirty-six leagues west of Tunis. The objects of commerce were the coral fishery and corn. The establishment consists of an agent with the title of governor, about fifteen subaltern officers, and three or four hundred inhabitants. From some strange fancy women are excluded from this settlement; and our author speaks with equal warmth and indignation against the infamous policy which suggested the measure, and the detestable vices which are the consequence.

In the fourth letter, for while we give the substance we shall seldom stay to point out the number of each, the author describes the European merchant as haughty and despotic in India, mean and servile in Africa. He purchases dearly the right of buying the productions of this rich and too uncultivated country, but he is sunk still lower by the sovereign contempt in which the Moors view him. These marks of vexation and injustice he must bear, if he wishes to carry on his commerce with ease. If a Moor kills a Frenchman, or, we believe, any Christian, he is fined 300 piastres, which are never demanded: if a Christian kills a Moor, in defence even of his own life, the company are obliged to pay, without the least deduction, 500 piastres. 'What then, says the indignant traveller, is the Moorish, this impure and ferocious blood, of almost double the value of that of Christians? And is it the French who have signed this disgraceful treaty? No: it is only the hand of the avaricious merchant.'—Again. 'Why does not the Asiatic, why does not the African come to enquire for our productions? Is it that, wiser than us, they are contented with their own; or more haughty than Europeans, will not submit to the disgrace with which they treat us. Can we then any longer consider them as barbarians?'

The abbe, desirous of penetrating to the interior parts of the country, takes the Arabian dress; and, in this garb, traverses the sands of Barbary. His complexion soon acquired the brown colour; and, though he declared war only against plants and insects, he travelled in the Arabian manner, with arms; these people always wear a large leathern girdle, furnished

nished with cartridges, a pair of pistols, a dagger, a sword, and a gun. Let us extract from his observations some account of the Moorish manners, and begin with their portraits.

‘Eyes, full of fire and courage; a savage look; strong and masculine features; aquiline noses; nervous arms; advantageous height; a haughty air; legs, thighs, and shoulders, generally bare: such is the external appearance of almost all the Moors. They are not naturally dark; they are born white, and remain so when not exposed to the heat of the sun. In the cities the complexion of the women are of such a brilliant whiteness that they would eclipse the greater part of Europeans; but the Moorish mountaineers, incessantly burnt by the sun, and almost always half naked, become, even from their infancy, of a brown colour, almost like soot.’

The houses of the Moors are almost as simple as their cloathing. They live in tents or huts, formed of the branches of trees or reeds. The union of many huts form a douare, and the number varies from ten to an hundred. They are placed circularly, so as to confine their flocks during the night in the middle. They sleep on the ground, and sometimes the more delicate Moors have some straw, a mat, or a coarse carpet. Some vessels of earthen ware to dress their victuals; a bowl of wood to draw water and milk the cows; a goat’s skin to churn the butter in; two little portable mills, to bruise the corn and reduce it to pottage, form the whole of their furniture. Their common food is couroucou, a kind of very thick pottage, which serves them for bread; and, as they eat, they moisten it with a little soup, with butter, and with honey. The chief of the tent seizes the plate, and eats first alone; he sits on his hams, and puts the couroucou before him, takes a little with his fingers, and makes pellets of it in the hollow of his hand; throwing them into his mouth with great dexterity. When the chief has finished, the plate is given to those who are next, particularly the children, who never eat with their father, or indeed before him, at least if he is a Moor of any distinction. The women eat last, and have only the fragments, though the care of preparing the dinner is their province. The life of the other Arabs is more severe and miserable. The savage hordes, which live only in the most inaccessible places, and separate from each other, eat only the wild roots, or the young buds of plants. The greater number have fire arms, and it is the most precious legacy a father can leave his children. They might use these in hunting; but, as powder and ball is scarce, they preserve them to secure their liberty. They prefer independance and misery, to a more easy life under the despotism of the Turks. Our author, however, pretends, that these

Arabs, so fierce and courageously independent, are, on the other hand, base, cowardly, perfidious, sanguinary, and even cannibals.

Our author collects plants, and stops in every place where vegetation is luxuriant, or supplies of new vegetables seem abundant. After passing over the plains nearest to Calle, where the factory procures a supply of hay for their cattle, he penetrates the forests, and ascends the mountains which bound them. He there finds numerous agreeable spots, where the air is refreshed by cool springs, and all the riches of Flora are scattered with the most luxuriant profusion. A forest of a different kind he describes in more gloomy colours. 'The Fauns and the Dryads never enlivened it by their presence: under these shades no nymph or swain were ever seen to gambol: no shepherdess, with a light fantastic toe, has ever disturbed the few tufts of grass which cover this barren earth. The aspect of this forest is hideous and gloomy, filled only with cork-trees, which, during the former year, the Moors had set on fire. The bark of the trees, superficially burnt, presented only black trunks, and branches in part deprived of their leaves. As I advanced, the finer dust of the burnt cork had covered my cloaths, and I thought myself transported to the region of the dead. My imagination, always ready to be raised, and sometimes to embody fancies, suggested the enchanted forest of Tasso, and I thought myself a new Orlando, destined to destroy some magical fortrefs. These idle notions changed the hideous appearance of the scene, and I felt a particular pleasure at finding myself in the midst of horrors. I was not, however, without some dread of lions and panthers, which lurk in these savage abodes, and the tracks of these animals on the sand frightened my horse so much that he constantly started backward and plunged, in spite of the spur, which I did not spare. To this forest succeeded a lake, which I have no hesitation in comparing to Avernus. The smell is so strong, that after coasting along its banks a quarter of an hour, I was seized with such a pain in my head and faintness, that I thought it impossible to continue there. But, as the plants were beautiful, and the birds numerous, and of a varied plumage, I remained there two or three days. The mud was black, heavy, and very glutinous, mixed with numerous vegetables in a state of decomposition.'

From thence M. Poiret went to the residence of Ali Bey, the chief of the hordes who have most connection with Calle. He observes, that it is not in the petty sovereigns of Africa that the luxury and magnificence of European potentates are to be expected. A chief of shepherds cannot display ostentatiously

fiously his riches; and, if he possessed them, the policy of his country teaches him to conceal them under the semblance of poverty. He found this monarch seated on his hams at the entrance of his tent. A little straw served him for a throne, and a little kind of finer dress, with a covering for his feet, distinguished him from his subjects, who appeared before him with naked feet. Informed of the rank of the abbe, he came towards him, presented his hand, and received him with great affability, after a long conversation, and a visit to the douaire, the abbe was obliged to receive the compliments of the Moorish *papas*, as he was the *papas* of Calle. The conversation fell on the Spaniards, who were said to be going to bombard the city of Bonne; and the traveller entertained them with a narrative of the Spanish conquests in the new world, with which they were greatly interested, and Ali Bey asked a thousand questions expressive of his surprize and admiration. More than an hundred Moors, in their usual posture, attended to him with avidity. They had some proofs of the despotic power of this chief, and of the submission of the people, however cruel, unjust, and inhuman his actions may be. 'The victim, which he sacrifices, expires without an avenger; and those who ought to defend him are the first who come to kiss the bloody hands of the tyrant.' Our author found here a school kept by a blind man. He taught only the Koran, which he knew perfectly. The elder instructed the younger to write, which they performed with a pen made of a reed, on a small plate, covered with a white varnish: all the children appeared lively, cheerful, and grateful to their master for his care.

The children of the Moors are wholly abandoned to nature, rarely caressed, and never beaten. At their own disposal, they are only employed in the exercises of their time of life: they run, they play, without dread of the most burning sun, or without feeling any disease from cold or damp: they even plunge into the water covered with the most profuse sweat. As soon as they can walk, they go with their fathers to take care of the flocks, mount with courage on the back of the fiercest bull, learn to manage, without bridle or spurs, the most intractable horse, and are accustomed betimes to support hunger, thirst, and fatigue. The parents pay little attention to them, and the child, in return, feels little affection for, or attachment to his parents.

M. Poiret gives a very energetic and eloquent account of the impression which the various ruins of ancient cities, often in the most uncultivated savage spots, made on his mind; but our article begins to be much too extensive. This account displays much learning and sensibility: for the same reason we

must refer to the work, for the manners, the wars, the religion, the marriages, and the prejudices of the Moors. The historical part of the work is finished by an account of the government of Tunis and Algiers, which are often confounded, though really distinct. Tunis is an hereditary monarchical state. The bey, though independent of the dey of Algiers, sends him, from fear, an annual tribute, for in all the wars the Algerines were victorious. Algiers is a republic, the government is elective, and the election a period of tumult. It is seldom settled at first by one choice, for the disappointed candidate often assassinates the new bey, and reigns in his room, unless a stronger or a more cunning tyrant displaces him in the same way. The subordinate governors are the kaides and scheiks, but justice is always sold to the highest purchaser, and vengeance, in a rich man, is generally unregarded.

The natural history of Barbary the author has treated of according to the order of the Linnæan system, and he speaks only of what he saw or had accounts of from persons worthy of credit. The characters of Linnæus are added in French. We can only extract a few passages, and the first shall be a description of an African night.

‘When night has covered the earth with its shades, the silent tranquility which usually accompanies it is interrupted by the cries of different wild beasts. The jackalls yelp in numerous flocks; the wolfs growl at a distance: it is a confusion of cries, which can with difficulty be distinguished. But the ecchos have scarcely repeated the deep continued roar of the king of animals, when the other sounds are lost. The voice of the lion alone is heard in these vast deserts, and silences every inhabitant of the forest. Intimidated by this roar, they are afraid of betraying their retreats, and attracting an enemy with which they cannot contend, notwithstanding the challenge he thus gives to every animal. Every beast fears him, and avoids his presence: his only enemy is an armed man, but even with this object he is not terrified. If hungry, he attacks, if full, passes him with a commanding haughtiness, impressing much more terror than he feels.’ Our author opposes the opinion of Marmol, who tells us that, when a lion has experienced the power of man, he is intimidated, and may be driven from his prey by women and boys,

The panther is more sanguinary and terrible, but less noble than the lion; between these two animals there are often the fiercest battles, though the former is the weaker. The panther, with the manners of a cat, is equally active. Trees, rivers, and every other obstacle are in a moment surpassed. His thirst of blood sparkles in his eye, which is full of anger
and

and rage. The horses of Barbary are of a moderate height; they have a high head, fine legs, a rough hair, sure steps, and equal vigor and activity in their motions. But, by the carelessness of the Arabs, who prefer cattle, and ill use this noble animal, neglecting at the same time to multiply and preserve the best races, they have lost much of their former reputation. Though gentle and manageable in their own climate, they are wild and intractable when brought to Europe. The dog, among the Arabs, is no longer distinguished for his gentle and interesting attachments. He is cruel, bloody, craving, and never satisfied. The dogs of Barbary are not subject to madness; are generally white, with strait ears, a long nose, and short feet. The eagle, the vulture, and the ostrich are the most singular birds of this country; but our author adds little to our knowledge in these respects.

To be able to subjoin some circumstances respecting Numidia, we shall leave the rest of the natural history. The heat of this country is sufficiently known; and at sometimes the winds, blowing over the burning desert of Zara, are almost inflamed. The Moorish custom of burning the grass and underwood adds to the heat, already extreme, and as the fire continues often more than two months, the heat of the air sometimes reaches the 122d degree of Fahrenheit, and continues at this point during several days.

Our traveller having heard of some boiling waters, which are found about half way in the road to Constantine, called in the language of the country, the Enchanted Baths, went to visit them. Their way was over a branch of the Atlas, and traversing the most rugged cliffs, the deepest ravines and forests, equally gloomy and deserted, they descended by a gentle slope to a deep valley. It was filled with mist, and the ground was calcined; in reality it was the crater of a volcano, and the heat reached very near the boiling point. These waters were, it seems, known to the Romans, for in the neighbourhood was a Roman building in good preservation. In the road our author saw different remains of Roman magnificence; vast roads over rocks in part destroyed; aqueducts and cisterns, which show that human art might make this country habitable, if it were not in the hands of a nation who neglect the arts, from habits, prejudices, religion, policy, and government.

On the whole, we consider these volumes as highly pleasing and interesting. We mean not to say that they are faultless. The style is sometimes too inflated and poetical. The same ideas and images too often recur; but as a faithful narrative of what the author himself observed, it is unimpeachable,

able, and one of the few works, which has not been tainted with the traveller's wish of adding to the proverbial wonders of Lybia.

Elogio del Boscovich. 8vo. Ragusa.

Boscovich lived and died little known, and slightly honoured in this country, where a few only of the most able mathematicians were acquainted with his works. We have often endeavoured to bring them forward to the notice of the public, and the present publication, by M. Bajamonti, will enable us to pay the last tribute of respect to his genius, learning, and abilities.

Boscovich was born at Ragusa in 1711. In his infancy he is said to have been distinguished by a strong memory, acute penetration, activity of mind, and accuracy of discrimination. He studied in the college of Jesuits at Ragusa, and at the age of fourteen was incorporated into the society. He made a rapid progress in every kind of learning, but was particularly fond of the mathematics. According to the scholastic system, he was, however, obliged to teach the languages for five years, and afterwards to give a lecture on theology; but before he had finished the course, his superiors placed him in the most advantageous situation for the display of his talents, by appointing him to teach the mathematics.

From the moment that Boscovich gave himself up to this science, he discovered all that might be expected from it. His first attention to the ancient geometers fixed his taste for that severe accuracy of geometric reasoning which formed the original character of his works. It was reserved, adds sig. Bajamonti 'for this celebrated man to establish new theories in every part of natural philosophy; to carry to the highest degree every part of the mathematical science, and to extend its limits. It is impossible to express the fervor and activity with which he engaged in the vast field of these sciences, and reached their strongest holds. Before he was chosen professor of mathematics, he had published some dissertations relative to different branches of it, and afterwards others as college exercises, on different occasions, or from the impulse of his fertile mind. The multiplicity of his works is incredible; he scarcely left a single angle of the mathematics, pure or mixed, in which he did not exercise his pen. The spots of the sun; the passage of mercury over the sun; the geometrical construction of spherical trigonometry; the aurora borealis; a new method of employing telescopes for the determination of the celestial bodies; the figure of the earth; the arguments of the ancients to establish its spherical figure; the circles called osculatory; the motions of
bodies

bodies propelled in an unresisting space; the nature and use of infinite quantities, and of quantities infinitely small; the inequality of weight in different parts of the earth; the aberration of the fixed stars; the limits of the certainty of astronomical observations; an examination of the whole science of astronomy; the motion of a body attracted by a given force towards an immoveable centre, in an unresisting medium; a mechanical problem on a solid of the greatest attraction; a new method of employing the observation of the phases in a lunar eclipse; the cycloid and various other curves; the forces, styled "living;" comets; tides; light; vortices; a demonstration and explanation of a passage of Newton respecting the rainbow; with various other memoirs of the same kind, which have been printed separately or inserted in different collections.'

'What a prodigious number of tracts on the most abstract and the most sublime subjects! With what a superiority he treats them! Nothing servile, nothing trifling, nothing even of a moderate value is to be found in his works. The transcendent genius of Boscovich was formed to illuminate every thing. He disdained to follow the systems of others, or to remain within the limits which had not been already passed.' This may perhaps appear the language of too eager panegyric, but it approaches nearer to truth than the praises of many foreign eulogists; and even in the simple elementary works which Boscovich published in compliance with his duty as a teacher, there is a judgment, a discrimination, and even a novelty, which is scarcely to be found in any similar attempt, except perhaps the Algebra of Maclaurin be excepted. His theory of natural philosophy, which it is impossible to give an account of in these contracted limits, would alone have established his fame, if his various other works, of which we have mentioned only a few, had been lost. He extends this system to every part of the operations of nature, including the functions of the mind and the devious wanderings of metaphysics, and with equal zeal pursues the same train of reasoning to the creation, providence, and a revelation.

But mathematics were not his only studies. His conversation displayed an acquaintance with the most important parts of history, the forcible traits of eloquence, and the most captivating charms of poetry. He was also an antiquarian, and wrote an account of an ancient villa, discovered in his own time, on the Tusculum. He wrote also three letters on the obelisk of Cæsar Augustus; but his prevailing passion was for poetry. He wrote a poem on the eclipses of the sun and moon, which was 'the most valued of his productions from the elegance of the latinity, and his manner of treating a subject little adapted for poetical discussion.'

A philosopher thus accomplished had a right to claim general esteem, and different honours and rewards. In fact, he was greatly carested by sovereigns and noblemen, who made him the most advantageous offers, which he accepted with the greatest moderation. Benedict XIV. the most philosophic pontiff that ever graced the chair of St. Peter, and the greatest patron of literary men, consulted him on the repairs required in the cupola of the first church of the Christian world. John V. king of Portugal, sent him to the Brazils to draw a chart of a part of that country. The same pope, Lambertini, commissioned him to travel through the pontifical state to ascertain the extent of a degree of the meridian in it. He was consulted in raising to a proper height some ports of the Adriatic and the sea of Tuscany. Various memoirs on similar subjects are sufficiently known, and particularly the result of the commission he received from Clement XIII. concerning the draining of the Pontine marsh. After this period, he visited England on some political business respecting his country Ragusa, and France, where he received both honours and emoluments.

The little literary disputes of Boscovich, the effects of envy, or of diversity of opinion, which sometimes disgrace the philosopher, who sees a superior genius in a more elevated rank, we shall not rest on. Boscovich shared misfortunes of this kind with philosophers of the first class, in every age. It is more humiliating to remark, that in his later days, a gloom overspread his active mind. He rejected every kind of amusement and consolation; his spirits were enfeebled, his imagination became more active, and his ideas deranged. By a successive degradation, he passed through all the degrees of imbecility, till at the end of five months an abscess in his heart burst, and he died at the age of seventy-six, in the year 1787. His mind and body probably decayed together, and Boscovich formed one other instance, where the delicate texture of the human mind, by close attention, was in part destroyed, where the mind, enfeebled by age and exertion, lost those regular trains of thought and reasoning which perhaps alone distinguish the philosopher from the idiot. He formed one other instance to debase the pride of humanity, and to show that its fall may be as complete as its rise is occasionally astonishing.

*Tableau Historique & Politique des deux dernieres Revolutions de Geneve. Par * M. ***. 2 Vols. 8vo. Elmsley,*

THE Revolutions of Geneva, noticed in our LVIIIth volume, p. 241. concluded with the transitory pacification of the insufficient edict of 1768. In these volumes, the poli-

* M. D'Ivernois—though said to be printed in London, these volumes were certainly printed abroad, perhaps at France.

tical history is brought down to the end of the year 1788, and the later events are too well known to require a detail. While France, regaining her liberty, is less willing to countenance oppression, the contending parties, eager on one side to attain more, and on the other to continue in possession of their present power, have raised fresh disturbances, which are scarcely at this moment quieted. We must attend, however, to our present author.

The exordium of M. D'Ivernois' dedication to the Genevois is singularly spirited.—'My countrymen! one of your fellow citizens dedicated to you a view of your constitution, to teach you to love it; I offer you a view of your dissensions, that you may learn to hate them. When I interrupt, by these unpleasing recollections, the tranquility of an expected peace, there is little doubt but I shall be declared its enemy. Of what importance, however, are the calumnies of party to him who has studied them in your history, and who has undertaken to explain them?' He goes on to stigmatise, in the most animated terms, the guarantee, the protection, and those who rendered them necessary. But the consideration of a more general interest, he tells us, induced him at the present æra to publish this history of dissensions and sufferings. 'From one end of Europe to the other, the people are agitated by the same passions that have tormented you. Twenty-five millions of French are contending with an aristocracy. If some of them deign to cast their eyes on this description, may they draw from it before hand the lesson which you learnt only in the school of misfortune?—It is this: if liberty be the greatest of goods, it is at the same time the most precarious: to deserve liberty, it must be loved without enthusiasm, not confounded with authority, enjoyed with moderation, watched over incessantly, defended with firmness, (*la surveiller sans cesse, & la defendre sans excès*). Our author concludes with an animated address in favour of peace, and adds the wisest advice with the most cogent arguments: we shall transcribe the concluding passage. 'Finally, be convinced of one important truth: that it is a blessing to recover liberty, and imprudent to endanger it, with a design of recovering it in greater perfection; that your ancestors could not defend theirs from external enemies but by courage and union, and while at this time you have no other defence within but your weakness, it must be rendered interesting by your mutual agreement. If, however, new quarrels should arise, above all things stop the fatal breath which shall dare to speak of foreign arbiters, and have always before your eyes the unfortunate lot of the republic of Seleucia.' (Tacitus, lib. iv.)

The edict of 1768 had only for a time quieted the disturbances; it had not removed the causes. The liberty of individuals

duals was forgotten, and the natives remained in the same state: They soon perceived it, and renewed their application to be admitted members of the general council: The chiefs of the aristocracy, and the French resident appeared to be interested in their favour; and in February 1770, new insurrections arose, which were quieted by another more disgraceful edict: It is unnecessary to recapitulate the events, but the convention consisted in admitting a certain number of the inhabitants, most worthy of the distinction, to the rights of citizens, and on the other hand banishing eight of the most obnoxious insurgents: These with their connections were relieved at Ferney by Voltaire, and the French resident applauded the punishment of crimes which he either suggested or supported.

In the interval of tranquility, some warm and judicious friends of the Genevois endeavoured to restore the ancient spirit, by reviving the ancient exercises and the vigorous firmness of constitution, which enabled their ancestors to brave dangers and death. Among these, lord Stanhope, at that time lord Mahon, who was educated in Geneva, was the foremost. Saussure with similar views, but as an aristocrate, suspected of deeper policy, pursued the same object in a different line, and endeavoured to reform his countrymen by reforming their education. Both failed: the luxury and effeminacy of the Genevois frustrated lord Mahon's plan; and the jealousy of the more ancient aristocrats, fearful that the people might become too enlightened, checked the design of M. de Saussure before it was completely matured. From our author's account, the Genevois seemed no longer to deserve the liberty which they professed to love. Riches, with its attending luxuries, had softened those manners which formerly prepared them for active exertions and resistance to despotism. They had virtue sufficient, however, to establish a society for the encouragement of arts, and to oppose the introduction of lotteries. It is remarkable that Geneva has yet no written code of laws, no regular constitutional system: they feared that they might lose their constitution if they reduced it to writing; and the citizen has been long subjected to laws which he does not know, which he cannot understand, and which may be at any time adduced by the power of the council. The defect was strongly insisted on by Fatio, who died a martyr to the violence of those who opposed it, and in part complied with in 1738: other additions were made at this time, but so slight were the additions, that to publish the whole system would require forty years. The present inhabitants were more eager, and Du Rouveray, another Fatio, urged the execution of the attempt, with a zeal which led others to suppose that he was ambitious of assisting in the formation of
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the Genevan pandects. We shall give a short sketch of this popular democrat's character, as drawn with spirit and ability by M. Ivernois. 'From his infancy his character appeared spirited and inflexible; a friend of political equality despising the pride of riches, so far as to defy its power without any reserve, and rejecting, as servile complaisance, what common politeness would have dictated. Endowed with an eloquence adapted for a popular assembly, and deeply acquainted with the minutest circumstances of the constitution of his country, he was idolized by all, as every one will be who to youth and talents adds the warmest patriotism.'

From the exertions of Du Rouveray and his assistants, it was resolved to perpetuate the constitution of Geneva, by fixing its code of laws and reducing them to a system. Commissioners were chosen, and the work was begun. Difficulties, however, arose, and the commissioners separated. M. de Vergennes had either already set his secret machines at work, or those who wished to confuse what they were unwilling to have performed, mixed the leaven of discord with their labour, and it was again a resource to call in the mediation of France. The various machinations, the little manœuvres of particular partizans, we cannot stay to develop. Our author writes with a warmth and an eagerness somewhat suspicious; and having premised this remark, we may transcribe what he says of Tronchin; it must be remembered that he is an aristocrat.

'The Tronchin of whom I speak, is the physician so justly esteemed by all the strangers who are acquainted with him. But those who have found his heart most replete with sensibility, and his mind with knowledge, will not contradict me when I say that he appeared contemptible, when the conversation related to Geneva, its dissensions, and its government. Of how many aristocrats of Geneva may we not say the same?'

While the aristocrats were negotiating at Versailles, their emissaries at home were endeavouring to render the cause of liberty despicable; and among the most successful attempts may be reckoned the plans of the fashionable ladies to turn the former austerities of the Genevois into ridicule, by representing them in little domestic comedies, and admitting only into the fashionable assemblies those who were of the aristocratic party.

The count de Vergennes, who was the supporter of monarchy or of despotism, as it suited the ambitious intriguing spirit of France, which engaged in every political dispute of every nation, wrote a menacing letter to the representers (the democrats) and endeavoured to draw the cantons of Berne and Zurich, the former guarantees, into the same hostile plan. The more cautious and wary cantons saw the ambitious projects

jects of the minister, and declined interfering in the disputes of the republic. The negatifs, (aristocrats) however, (depending on the promises of the count) rejected every advice, and every overture for a reconciliation: little circumstances, which would not at any other time be thought of, increased the embarrassments, and peace was at a still greater distance. We would advise this portrait of the French minister to be contrasted with the very flattering likenesses drawn of him in his eloge, in the eighth volume of the History of the Royal Society of Medicine. An impartial enquirer could scarcely conjecture that the same person and the same conduct was the subject of both historians.

M. Neckar was at this time comptroller of the finances; and though the negotiation was not in his department, yet he could not be indifferent to the distresses of his native city. He seems from this account to have been favourable to the representers, and the count Maurepas decidedly blamed the conduct of his colleague. The count de Vergennes, however, received the deputies from the representers politely, but industriously avoided engaging in any discussion on the subject of their errand. He received the memoirs, pretended to have examined both sides of the question, and sent the fundamental principles of a new constitution for Geneva to the Swiss guarantees. This step, or rather the letter that accompanied it, was very injudicious. It revealed too much of the French system, and the cantons saw plainly that when it was convenient to France, their own constitution might be the subject of similar experiments. They rejected the office assigned them, of co-operating with the count, and returned the 'bases' which he had sent.

To assist in the ambitious plans, the aristocrats next allure the 'natives,' the sons of those who are styled inhabitants, that is, strangers admitted to a right of habitation in the city. To these some new privileges were allowed, and the citizens could only counterbalance the offer by resigning all their exclusive commercial rights; but even in this they did not wholly succeed, for the intrigues of this new party, called from their chief Cornuaud, Cornualists, prevented it. This leader of a party was, it seems, secretly encouraged by the count de Vergennes; and the procurator-general, Du Rouveray, urged the senate in a printed remonstrance to complain of it. The French minister was violently incensed by this injury, and insisted on the banishment of the patriot. The natives were in this way separated, and as each appeared equal in strength, the resource was arms: in the little skirmishes that ensued, the citizens were victorious, and the victory served to confirm the privileges of the natives, in what is styled the edict of the 10th of February, 1781. A solid and a lasting peace was then anxiously wished for,

fer, and the ministers from the cantons of Berne and Zurich endeavoured to adjust it, but the count de Vergennes continued to interpose, insisted on the negociations being carried on forty leagues from the city, and during the whole progress impeded it by numerous objections. When no attention was paid to his remonstrances, he disengaged the king of France from the guaranty of the edict of 1738.

But in this interval the devoted state experienced new alarms and new dangers. The edict of February 1781 was suspended, and when the senate was called on to confirm it, they refused, and another tumult was the consequence, which was appeased only by the representers joining the natives, obtaining the edict, and ultimately reforming the less and greater councils. To add to the distresses, the manœuvres of the count de Vergennes had engaged the Bernois to join with the courts of Turin and Versailles to sign a treaty whose object it was to reduce the Genevois by force. The canton of Zurich with becoming spirit and firmness refused to join in this confederacy.

To see three powers, two of which were monarchs of no mean rank among the kings of Europe, joining against a single republic, so small, as to make the sarcasm of Voltaire almost a truth, was truly ridiculous; and the wits of Paris did not lose so fair an occasion of laughing at the minister, who, they observed, endeavoured in this way to restore the glory of France, recently lost by the defeat of De Grasse. Some, descending to an indifferent pun, called it the war of the dwarfs*; but the most appropriated remark was that of the grand duke of Russia. What do you think of this war, said some one to him? 'as of a tempest in a glass of water.' The Genevois, 'madly tyrannical and madly seditious,' did not neglect to prepare for defence. Remembering the assistance of Charles V. in 1540, they applied to Joseph, who advised them "to look for assistance in the Helvetic confederacy, declaring that he was equally unable and unwilling to engage in the interests of Geneva." He added the following judicious remarks: "democracy, to support itself, requires virtues which are unfortunately not the production of this age: the violences lately perpetrated at Geneva are a sufficient proof that the inhabitants are far from possessing them." 'A singular eulogium of democracy, adds M. D'Ivernois, in the mouth of an emperor, which ought to convince a free people how necessary it is not to furnish their enemies with a topic of satire.'—Lord Abingdon's observations, when applied to by the Genevois, the political spirit of the moment leads us to transcribe. 'There was a time, said

* *Guerre des Nains*, alluding to the envoy *Hennin*, who was supposed to have been the cause of the war.

his lordship to M. D'Ivernois, when the fleets of this nation were the passports of justice over the globe. Then your distresses would have been heard and relieved—at present, circumstances are altered, and I mention it to regret the inability of this country to speak to the enemies of the human race with its accustomed tone of authority.'

The armies advanced, and Geneva was left to defend itself. In the French army was, however, a regiment which had returned from assisting America, and in this very dissimilar service, the general and the officers engaged with great reluctance. An equal reluctance was seen in the army of Sardinia, and we have some doubts, whether in such circumstances, if the Genevois had resisted, their antagonists would have made any hostile attempts. It was to these circumstances that the singular lenity of France was owing, which, after all the preparations, promised peace, security, and independence to the public, on their banishing twenty-one of the representers, who were mentioned in the terms. It is to the credit of the Genevois that this condition was for a long time refused. The proscribed citizens, who were promised securities and safe conducts, offered themselves as expiatory victims, but the citizens for a long time refused the offer, and the army with unexampled patience, a patience easily accounted for, enlarged the period of deliberation repeatedly. The Genevois at last yielded and opened their gates.

Though such was the apparent moderation of the conquerors, Geneva was no longer independent. The plenipotentiaries introduced the edict for the new constitution, and in order to secure it, excluded all those from the national assembly, who had taken arms in the late contests. The assembly was reduced from sixteen or eighteen hundred to five hundred and twenty-four, and of these, one hundred and thirteen opposed the new edict. The fate of a city, containing 30,000 souls, was thus decided by four hundred weak intimidated citizens, but it has been amply avenged. The Syndic Guainier, the relation of Neckar, publicly opposed the edict, and the French general was compelled to observe, 'that he had the satisfaction of seeing that there was yet a spark of liberty remaining in Geneva,'—'yes, adds the historian, as the last sigh of a dying man shows that he is not yet dead.'

Their constitution, in opposition to the words and meaning of the treaty, entirely destroyed the independence of Geneva, not only by preventing any new arrangement without the consent of the guarantees, but enabling them to interfere in the concerns of the republic, though not applied to, on the foundation of common report, which they could always occasion or
take

take advantage of. It is not surprising, therefore, that emigrations were spoken of, and a proper place of retirement agreed on. The application to the English government, and to that of Ireland, was made in the short administration of the marquis of Lansdown, who received the proposals with eagerness, and a part of Ireland was actually allotted for the retreat of the Genevese. The unsettled state of administration afterwards delayed the execution of the plan, and cooled the ardour of the emigrating inhabitants. Their situation admitted of little real change till the year 1788, when another commotion, supposed to be owing to the price of bread, occasioned new disturbances, which, as the mediators were otherwise employed, produced at length a very sincere reconciliation. The little alarms since that period we have already hinted at; but the constitution is now established on just and proper principles, the magistrates are recalled, and the little convulsions which temporary accidents may occasion, will only serve to point out the value of peace, while the former revolutions will show the necessity of unanimity.

We have sketched this outline from M. Ivernois' work without any remarks in the progress, except noticing a little warmth and apparent eagerness in his representations. We shall conclude our article with the only apology for himself which we can find in the work. It is in a note in vol. ii. p. 137, where he mentions the deliberations on the treaty proposed by the armed guarantees at their gates, on the first of July 1782.

'The author does not conceal that he was an actor and a victim in the revolution which he describes. He even mentions it to guard his readers against the traits of partiality which, notwithstanding his care, may have occasionally crept into his work. If any one objects that an historian should neither have any religion, country, or party, he certainly shall endeavour to show that he is superior to the imputation.—The object at present is, not to enquire whether I have ever drank of the cup of party, but whether I have dipped the pencil of the historian in it; particularly whether the facts I have collected are true. If notwithstanding all my scrupulous care in the choice of my documents, I have fallen in any error, I shall be eager to correct it; but this is the only motive which can again lead me into this controversy. I see too that I shall never be induced to answer the abuse which I expect from the warm zealots of either party. If this history deserves to be handed down to posterity, to it I appeal.'

*Henrici Callisen, M. D. &c. Principia Systematis Chirurgiæ
modernæ, in Usum publicum & privatum Adornata. 2 Vols.
8vo. Hafniæ.*

THE first volume of this very able and scientific system of modern surgery has been for some time before us: it was published three years since; but the second has come to our hands only within a few months, and we wished not to mutilate what we thought of importance to present entire. Surgery has not yet, perhaps, assumed the form of a system, for surgeons have, in general, thought it sufficient if they united subjects nearly allied, and even these relations have yielded to convenience, to the size of a volume, or considerations of still less importance. It must be afterwards considered, how much it has gained by the supposed improvement.

Surgery, in its most extensive sense, includes every method of relieving by external means; and in this view it comprehends probably every disease, for we recollect none in which different external remedies and applications are not sometimes useful. Diseases, however, in this extent, are not our author's object; nor does he, on the other hand, confine himself to those only which require a chirurgical operation. He treats of the diseases which *principally* require external means, and only points out the use of those external applications in others. As the system of medicine is practiced in this country, our author undoubtedly interferes with the province of the physician; but perhaps the separation is unnatural, improper, and scarcely to be preserved with precision.

The first volume contains the introduction, with an explanation of general diseases, and the *general* chirurgical remedies. It may be styled the pathology and therapeutics of surgery. The first class contains the diseases of the solids and fluids: the diseases of the solids are morbid laxity or debility, and rigidity; the remedies, friction, compression, cold, electricity, *magnetism*, and *music*; unctions, fomentations, cataplasms, and warm-bathing of every kind, respectively. The general diseases of the fluids, requiring external remedies, are a redundant or deficient quantity, and a depraved quality. The remedies of the first kind are bleeding from the veins or arteries, scarification, evacuation by leeches, blisters, issues, setons, errhines, *external* sialagogues, suction, glysters, suppositories, and injections: those of the second are only the various means of supplying nutriment, when the patient is unable to swallow, by means of glysters, warm-bathing, &c. The chirurgical remedies, adapted for depraved fluids, consist only in infusing or transfusing fluids more mild and healthy, a method which the late attempts in one of our universities will probably

probably not restore to general practice. Under the head of venæsection, M. Callisen treats of the different accidents, in consequence of bleeding, with the remedies — ecchymosis; wound of an artery, of a lymphatic vessel, a nerve, a tendon, and the periosteum; inflammation of the internal coat of a vein; phlegmon, and abscess; infection, communicated by a lancet, and syncope. Each of these accidents are treated of shortly and comprehensively.

The first class of surgical diseases are, 1. Those from irritation: the orders are pains, spasms, fevers, and inflammations. Of the inflammations our author calls his first genus the true phlegmone, the second the mixed inflammation, including erysipelas, rheumatism and gout, as species; thirdly, the spurious inflammations, such as flying pains from acrimony; and fourthly, particular inflammations. Perhaps the first order, pains, including the pain of the teeth and ear, might be reduced to inflammations; for, though they are certainly caused by acrimony, independent of inflammation, they seldom continue with violence, without becoming inflammatory. If, in a surgical view, it be contended that they may require particular operations to remove acrimony, so may ophthalmia, the phymosis infantum, &c. The second class contains diseases from a solution of continuity; of this class, the abscesses, ulcers, wounds, and fractures form so many natural orders, not merely independent; but, from their arrangement, illustrating each other. The third class is more artificial: it is entitled diseases from an impediment to, or a suppression of the circulation. The first order contains the cold humours, and the genera are dropsies, cystides, phymata, and excrecentiæ. The carcinoma apertum, a variety of the phymata, ought undoubtedly to have been considered under ulcers, but it was probably not proper to separate it from the other stages of the complaint. The second order is a natural one, the marcores, the third retentiones, including ischuries, ileus, and partus impossibilis: the fourth, the resolutiones, and the genera are apoplexia, syncope, *suffocationes*, and paralytes; the fifth, corruptiones, including gangrene and necrosis. The fourth class contains the changes in the situation of the parts; and the only natural orders are luxations, herniæ, and perhaps prolapsus. The deviationes and diastyses are orders evidently artificial. The fifth class contains diseases from a preternatural conformation. The first order ‘*cohæiones naturales*,’ includes cataract, calculus, imperforations and concretions.—The second order contains the deformities from excess or defect.

From this short account our readers may easily judge of the extent and utility of our author’s system. There are no plates in

the volumes, and, for the descriptions of the surgical instruments, he refers to Brambilla's *Instrumentarum Chirurgicum*. Except in one instance, which will be observed in our abstract, he does not interfere with the professor of midwifery. In a syllabus, where much is repeated from other authors, and many things concisely mentioned, it will not be expected that we shall follow M. Callisen closely. It will be only necessary to select specimens of his doctrine and opinions from different parts of the volumes. We do this the more willingly, as we trust it may induce some surgeon of this country to translate the work with *notes*.

In general, the remarks on the pathology and the therapeutics of surgery, though short, are clear, comprehensive, and judicious. We shall select our first specimen from his account of the cold-bath, and shall endeavour to preserve the very concise style of our author in the translation.

After mentioning the primary and secondary effect he goes on. 'From these effects it appears that cold-bathing is a principal remedy, not only against the laxity of the simple solid, but debility of the nerves, and complicated diseases of the fluids. It is therefore of use in various severe diseases by its curative powers, and particularly serviceable as a prophylactic. We use it with the first view in diseases of the glands, particularly the lymphatic glands, in different cutaneous complaints, as for instance, the itch, leprosy, scurvy, rickets, hysteria, uterine diseases, pains, convulsions, spasms, palsy, and putrid fever: frictions with ice have been found useful even in the plague. As a prophylactic, or powerful corroborant, it is of infinite service to every age and either sex, without excepting the most tender infants, particularly if friction be employed after the bath, which, besides the peculiar advantages of friction, cleans the skin, and carries off impurity. Indeed the sudden momentaneous action of cold water is sufficient to produce the effects before enumerated; but these are followed by a more rapid tendency of the blood to the brain, not to be checked and unjustly suspected of being injurious; but it is rather salutary, if the brain is not injured, and no plethoric state subsists. On the contrary, however, going slowly into the water, and staying long in it, is dangerous, as it induces laxity and debility, occasions internal congestions, dissolutions, obstructions, nervous affections, &c.

'This remedy must be avoided when the perspiration is copious, which can scarcely ever be suppressed without danger, when there is any fixed obstruction in any viscus, when there is a plethora or any tendency to local congestions. Prudence also advises the more moveable constitutions to use the cold-bath

bath by degrees, in order to prevent nervous commotions. It is better to begin with a more temperate bath, and to guard against the sudden impulse of the water by a flannel dress.

‘A local cold-bath, a kind of imbrocation, stillicidium, or a stream of cold water, is useful, not only from the cold, but from its velocity and impulse. Cold applications and fomentations, by means of towels, filters, sponges, bladders, the application of snow and frictions with ice, must be repeated as often as necessity and the symptoms require. In general, the smaller the part subjected to the cold, the less is the effect, and the longer it should be continued. In using the stillicidium, to lessen the disagreeable feeling, the place should be changed, or the impulse of the water lessened by interposing linen.

‘No injurious accumulations of blood will arise in the internal parts from cold applications to the part external to them. Theory rather shows, that, by the consent of the nerves, the internal vessels of any given part are also contracted, and the blood repelled to more distant parts; and experience confirms the opinion from the use of cold applications in apoplexies, concussions of the brain, ophthalmies, herniæ, and diseases of the testes.

‘Local baths have a powerful influence in strengthening, supporting, and stimulating the parts to which they are applied, and are occasionally sedative and resolvent. This remedy is therefore of singular efficacy in innumerable local complaints—the first stage of inflammation; wounds, particularly of the head; contusions, and their consequences; cold tumours; and herniæ, with the precautions hereafter mentioned. Waters medicated by nature or art, with similar powers, greatly increase the effects of the bath. Among these, the fomentation of Schmucker, composed of five gallons of water, two quarts of vinegar, four ounces of sal. armoniac, and one ounce of depurated nitre, preserves its former reputation.’

We could not properly curtail this quotation, since we designed it to be a specimen of the author’s manner, as well as containing some facts and hints of importance. In our other specimens from this first part we must be more concise. It may have been remarked, that electricity and magnetism are among M. Callisen’s remedies. Under the first head, he points out the effects more commonly attributed to it by its admirers, and observes, that positive and negative electricity are, in these respects, the same. With respect to its medical virtues, he considers it of great service in laxities of the simple solids, and the more compound diseases, as rheumatisms and inflammations, not produced by mechanical stimulus. ‘It is therefore,’ he remarks, ‘of great service in ophthalmies, erysipelas, cold glandular tumours, paralysis, atrophy, gutta serena, glaucoma,

spasms, incipient abscess, fistula lacrymalis, periodical nervous head-ach, gout, suppression of the catamenia, and hæmorrhoids.' He recommends the avoiding too long continuance of the remedy at once, and too violent shocks. Of magnetism he remarks, that there are many examples of its being useful in diseases arising partly from debility, and partly from stimulus, and that it contributes not a little to the increase of animal heat. The method of communicating magnetism, for surgical purposes, is as follows. 'A natural, armed magnet, or an artificial one, is held with its north pole opposite to the affected part, and, from thence, is moved downwards to the extremities, in a direction parallel to that part. Secondly, many artificial magnets, placed contiguous, with their poles opposed, are carried under the cloaths; or, covered with linen or silk, are included in collars, girdles, or bracelets. Thirdly, magnetic laminæ of different forms are placed on the skin, confined on it, and changed as often as they contract rust. Our author thinks the magnetic power acts on the nerves, and that it is not yet ascertained whether it has any influence, without the assistance of the imagination.

'Animal magnetism, once commended, then forgotten, and lately raised with so much ostentation, rests on a very insecure foundation, wholly destitute of any rational support. The boasted effects are owing to the irritation of the more sensible parts of the body, and the powers of the imagination: from this source, the spasms and convulsions, as well as the evacuations occasioned by animal magnetism, may be explained.'

In the medical and surgical part of the work we find much to commend, a few facts which raise some doubts, and a very little to blame. After a very careful perusal, it appears no easy task to give a proper account of it: if we select one disease as a specimen, we must transcribe much which is already known, and to ascertain what is new, or may be interesting, is a difficult task. We can cheerfully and almost unreservedly praise what our author has said on ophthalmia and angina of the different kinds, particularly the angina membranacea, called by our neighbours the croop, in all of which he departs from the peculiar office of a surgeon. We think also, that all which our author has said of wounds in the head, and of the operation of the trepan, is singularly correct and just; yet neither of these complaints afford such an extract as will give an adequate idea of the work. We must therefore, as the less inconvenience, follow him in some particular disease, and as our former extracts are rather of a medical nature, we shall select first a purely surgical subject, the management of hydrocele.

In the three kinds mentioned, the water occurs in the cellular texture of the scrotum, in the tunica vaginalis, or in the involucre of the spermatic cord. The symptoms and the cause are sufficiently known. The prognosis, as usual, is taken from the time of life, the duration of the disease, the habits and constitution. After drawing off the water by a proper canula, an inflammation coming on, sometimes radically cures the patient; but it is more common to find the collection of fluid return. It happens occasionally, that from a wounded vessel, blood will be effused under the skin, and produce a blackness in the adjoining parts, and, in old cachectic persons, gangrene and death. After the operation, cold antiseptic epithems, and a moderately constricting bandage, are advised. But, for the more perfect cure, different methods of exciting inflammation, by introducing irritating bodies, by the seton and by a caustic, are described.

‘By these means frequent experience has shown, that the disease may be cured certainly and radically. One common inconvenience, however, attends all, that a necessary and proper degree of inflammation to bring on a sufficient union in the vaginal and albugineous sac, cannot be obtained. If too small, the disease returns; if too great, very violent symptoms, often intractable, are induced; nor, in this situation, can the state of the testicle be properly ascertained. Considering every thing, therefore, a complete incision of the whole sac seems preferable to this inflammatory and suppuratory process. Those who prefer this method should employ the puncture once or oftener, if they find that the state of the testis leads them to adopt the operation just mentioned. If the fluid evacuated be turbid, bloody, sanious, or foetid, or, if the testis be found diseased, every irritation should be avoided, and the humour extirpated without delay.

‘With respect to the operation, a simple incision, and a proper treatment afterwards are alone necessary, and, with due attention, I never saw, in a good constitution, any disagreeable symptoms follow. In complicated circumstances, it is much more safe than the other methods.’—The description of the operation can only be properly understood in the work itself.

The hydrocele of the spermatic cord is only a disease of importance when it forms a sac, and increases so much as to produce inconvenience from the distention and consequent irritation. By the fluctuation, and the impossibility of reduction, so as to leave the testis free, can it be distinguished from the other kind of spermatic hydrocele (the peritonialis), and from hernia. A furrow on the external surface shows that there is a septum dividing the sac, and perforation is a doubtful remedy,

dy, while it is uncertain how many sacs there are. The incision is, in this instance, highly preferable. The peritonæal hydrocele, attending often hernia, and generally connected with it, requires only punctures.

Our late attention to M. Baudelocque's System of Midwifery*, led us to examine our author's observations on the partus impossibilis, in which case only, the assistance of the general surgeon is required.

The circumstances, in which he admits of the Cæsarian section, is when the death of the mother leaves this method as the only resource; when the aperture of the pelvis is less than two inches and a half; when the child is in the Fallopian tube, or in the abdomen, from rupture of the uterus; or in cases of an hernia uteri. The preferable part for the incision is the linea alba. The operation, with some judicious directions for our rendering it successful, follow. He next adverts to the synchondrotomia.

The symphysis of the ossa pubis, and the ligaments between the illia and sacrum, are during gravidity, in our author's opinion, enlarged and swelled. The division of the symphysis also, he thinks, is not dangerous; and that, *in some degree*, it will increase the oblique diameter of the uterus. 'It must be owned, indeed, that the lesser diameter of the pelvis cannot be increased by this operation more than three lines, to which the interstice itself, and the convexity of the bregma, entering partly into the aperture must be added. If therefore more than three or four lines are necessary to be added to the diameter, even when the birth is assisted by the forceps,' more effectual operations must supersede the section of the symphysis.

'Synchondrotamia is therefore indicated, 1. When an addition of three lines to the diameter of the pelvis will render the aperture sufficient for the passage of the child. 2. When the head of the child is so fast wedged in the strait, as to be incapable of coming forward or of being pushed back. 3. When the child can neither be turned, nor the forceps applied, and in inflammation, gangrene, and rupture of the uterus appear unavoidable.

'It must not be concealed, that the circumstances which indicate it, and the operation itself are obscure and difficult. 1. It is often difficult, and even in some circumstances impossible, to know the diameter of the pelvis with sufficient accuracy. 2. In distorted pelvis, the various figure and curvature of the ossa pubis, the lateral inclination of the os sacrum, the angle of the connection of the ileum with the os sacrum, often different in the different sides, make a great difference in the *effects* of the enlargement procured by the synchondrotomia,

* Our account of this work was designed for the current Number; but was unavoidably postponed.

and may render the operation useless. 3. An unusual size in the head of the child, which cannot be discovered; its inconvenient or distorted situation in the pelvis; the ossification of the futures, &c. may impede the success of the operation. 4. The symphysis, in distorted pelves, is not always in the middle, but bent to one side, which makes the operation difficult. 5. The lower aperture of the pelvis is often not altered by the operation. 6. In distorted pelves, the posterior ligaments, even by an equal distention, do not equally yield: one of them is often broken, and it is marked by an obscure sound. 7. When the ossa pubis are separated, the anterior part of the connection of the ileum with the sacrum is separated, the posterior part is more firmly compressed, by which the sacrum is pushed forward, and the diameter of the pelvis really lessened. 8. Inflammatory suppuration, caries, and gangrene often follow the forcible separation of the bones, the cellular texture of the bladder and ligaments.'

We had purposed to give some account of our author's observations on cataract; but our limits will not allow us to proceed, and we have probably said enough to induce our readers to refer to the work, or some ingenious surgeon to translate it. We need not repeat our commendations, for our attention to these volumes shows that we think them really valuable.

Il Filostrato, Poema di Gio. Boccaccio, ora per la prima volta dato in luce. Parigi, Didot il maggiore. 1789. 8vo. Edwards. London.

THE editor of this poem is grossly mistaken in his repeated assertions, that he has now published it for the first time. Mr. Tyrwhitt, in his Essay on the Language and Versification of Chaucer, among the Prolegomena to his excellent edition of that poet's Tales, has long ago told us, that in the curious library of the late Mr. Crofts, he found *Il Filostrato, che tratta de lo innamoramento de Troylo et Gryseida, et de molte altre infinite battaglie. Impresso nella inclita cita de Milano, per Magistro Uldericho Scinzenzeler, nelle anno M.CCCC.LXXXXVIII, a di XXVII de mese di Settembre, in 4to.* This edition of 1498 is, however, one of the scarcest books in the Italian language; and it is not surprizing that it escaped the present editor, to whom we are equally obliged for the curious poem before us.

The prose of Boccaccio has been so much celebrated, that it has eclipsed his poetical fame; not to mention, that his poetry by no means rivals that of Dante or Petrarca. It is, indeed, so lame, so void of the *vivida vis*, that we do not wonder at the neglect into which it has fallen. But to the English critic it has its attractions, because that Chaucer, the great father of

our poetry, has imitated two poems of Boccaccio very closely, the *Teseide*, in the Knight's Tale, and that now before us, in his *Troilus and Cressida*.

Mr. Tyrwhitt has given a summary account of the *Teseide*, in his Introductory Discourse to the Canterbury Tales; but as he unfortunately did not extend his labours to the whole of Chaucer's works, a summary of the *Filostrato* did not enter his plan. We shall therefore lay before our readers a little abstract, after a few preliminary remarks.

The editor, in his preface, informs us, both this poem and the *Teseide* were composed by Boccaccio in praise of Fiammetta, his mistress, supposed by almost all the authors of his life to have been the fair Maria, natural daughter of Robert, king of Naples. He then says, that two causes operated towards the neglect into which this poem had fallen; the first, the superiority of Boccaccio's prose; the second, the incorrectness and discordance of the manuscripts of this piece, to be found in the libraries of Italy. The editor having long resided in Tuscany, was so fortunate as to procure a very fine MS. on vellum, written in the year 1393, which he compared with diverse MSS. at Florence, and particularly with four ancient and valuable ones in the Laurentian library. He concludes with mentioning his design of publishing the *Teseide*, which, we understand, is also in agitation here; and that in the royal library at Paris, there is a French translation of the *Filostrato*, written about the year 1487. He does not, however, seem to have consulted the Italian MS. of this poem in that library mentioned by Montfaucon, in his *Bibliotheca Manuscriptorum*, tom. ii. p. 793.

To the editor's preface succeeds *Argomento dell' Autore*, or, the Author's Argument, falsely so intitled; for it is a long and insipid address to his mistress Fiammetta, upon sending her this poem, full of love, finely spun, and wrought into a spider's web, thus hung over the porch of his edifice. Take a specimen: 'Ohime! quante volte per minor doglia sentire si sono essi spontaneamente ritorti da guardare il tempio, le loggie, le piazze, e altri luoghi, i quali già vaghi e desiderosi cercavano di vedere e talvolta in essi videro la vostra sembianza e in loro core sieno costretti a dire quello misero de Geremia, Come siede sola la città la quale in addietro era piena di popolo e donna delle genti.' We shall not attempt to translate such *precious* language.

This poem is divided into ten parts, of sixty or seventy octave stanzas each. We shall attempt to give a brief idea of the general contents.

Part I. Troilus becomes enamoured of Griseida, daughter of Chalcas, *bishop* of Troy.

II. Troi-

II. Troilus tells his love to Pandarus, cousin of Griseida, who consoles him, and then induces Griseida to love him.

III. Griseida examines her own heart, whether she ought to love Troilus or not: consultations between Troilus and Pandarus: Troilus writes to Griseida, who consents to his addresses.

IV. Troilus and Pandarus converse together on concealing the love of Griseida. Conversation between Troilus and his mistress. His success.

V. Griseida is restored to her father. The grief of Troilus, and the arguments of Pandarus to console him. The Trojan ladies visit Griseida before her departure. Last conversation of Troilus and Griseida, who promises to return in ten days.

VI. Troilus goes in search of Griseida: their conversation. She is given up to her father, who was in the Greek camp. Troilus returns to Troy in despair, and by the advice of Pandarus takes up his residence with Sarpedon, who had come to assist the Trojans.

VII. Griseida given up by Priam to Diomed, to be restored to her father. She is received by the Greeks with joy and with festivals.

VIII. Griseida grieves for the absence of Troilus. Diomed comes to console her, and, blaming Troilus, declares his own love. Conversations of Troilus and Pandarus.

IX. Troilus wishes to kill himself, because in a dream he saw Griseida ravished from him. Conversation with Pandarus. Troilus writes to Griseida, but receives no answer.

X. Cassandra cautions Troilus against his love for Griseida. He discovers her love of Diomed. His complaints. He is slain by Achilles.

Though we have been obliged to pass over some small events, yet the reader may judge from this sketch how little incident there is here for a poem in ten books. Chaucer's translation is as ample as the original, and has never been esteemed among his best works, because of this radical defect of incident.

To enable the reader to form an idea of Chaucer's mode of translation, we shall subjoin two stanzas from the beginning, and one from the end of the poem, as given in the original, and in Chaucer's paraphrase.

Boccacio's address to his mistress is changed by Chaucer, and we shall therefore begin with the seventh stanza.

Erano a Troia li Greci d'intorno
Nell' armi forti, giusta lor potere;
Ciascuno ardito, fiero, prode, e adorno
Si dimostrava con li loro schiere;

Ognun

Ognun la stringe più di giorno in giorno,
 Concordan tutti ad un pari volere
 Di vendicar l'oltraggio e la rapina
 Per Paris fatta di Elena regina.

Quando Calcas, la cui alta scienza
 Avea già meritato di sentere
 Mercè d'Apollo, da tutti credenza
 Volendo del futuro il vero ardire,
 Qual la longa vinceffe sofferenza
 De Troiani o de Greci il grande ardire ;
 Conobbe, e vidde, dopo lunga guerra
 Morti i Troiani, e disfatta la terra.

CHAUCE R.

It is wel wist how that the Grek is strong
 In armis with a thousand shippis went
 To Troie wardis, and the citie long
 Besieged in, nigh ten yeres ere thei stent,
 And how in divers wise and one entent
 The ravishing to wreke of Queine Heleine
 By Paris done, thei wroughtin all their peine.

Now fell it so that in the towne there was
 Dwelling a lord of gret autorite,
 A gret divine, that cleped was Calcas,
 That in that science so expert was, that he
 Knew well that Troie would destroyed be,
 By answer of his god, that hight was thus
 Dan Phebus or Apollo Delphicus, &c.

BOCCACCIO.

Il furore di Troilo ne' diversi
 Attachi nocque a Greci senza fallo,
 Che di lor pochi ne veniano avversi,
 Chi non cacciassè morti da cavallo ;
 Erano i colpi suoi così perversi,
 Che rifiutavan tutti entrare in ballo :
 Un giorno alfin che ucciso ne avea mille,
 Morto ei rimase per le man d'Achille.

CHAUCE R.

The wrathe as I began you for to seie
 Of Troilus the Grekis broughtin dere,
 For thousandis his handis madin deye,
 As he that was withoutin any pere,
 Save in his time Hector as I can here.
 But welawaie! (save only Godis will)
 Dispitously him slough the fierce Achill.

Dictionnaire des Graveurs, anciens et modernes. Par F. Bafan, Graveur. Seconde Edition. 2 Tomes 8vp. Paris. 1789. Edwards. London.

WHEN a new edition of a work is remarkably enlarged, we consider it as our duty to notice it; and this is the case with the present. M. Bafan had, however, better have intitled his work *Dictionnaire des Meilleurs Graveurs*; for, considered as a general dictionary of the artists in this line, it is very deficient. At the end of the second volume are given two alphabetical tables, one of the engravers mentioned in Strutt's Dictionary, London, 1785, 2 vols. 4to. and the other of these in Gandenelli's *Notizie Istoriche dagl' Intagliatori*, Sienna, 1771, 3 vols. 8vo. but omitted in the present compilation, because their works were unknown to M. Bafan, or were too indifferent to be mentioned. And M. Bafan observes, that Strutt and Gandenelli have often cited editors as engravers; and have admitted engravers of letters and maps to a place among their superiors. The latter reasons of omission are good; the former bad, for many curious prints may have escaped the ocular inspection of our author, and his judgment may not always be decisive.

In perusing this work we have been somewhat surpris'd at the neglect with which the English artists are treated, while extravagant encomiums are heaped upon the French. M. Bafan even falls often into that singularity of his countrymen, cacography of English names. For Trotter we have Trotte, for Kirkal, Kirchal, for Stubbs, Stabbs, for Strutt, Srutt, &c. &c. If this defect proceeds from ignorance it is contemptible; if from superciliousness it is still more so. But we incline to impute it to the former cause, for the author is so unlearned that he always reckons the fifteenth century from the year 1500, the sixteenth from 1600, &c. In what century would he have placed any artist who lived in the year of Christ 99?

We shall translate a few articles, in order to give the reader an idea of this publication.

' Adams, Robert, born at London in 1530, where he died in 1591. He was architect and director of the buildings to queen Elizabeth. He has engraven the adventures of the Spanish fleet, called The Invincible, when it perished on the coasts of England, published by Ruyter in 1589.

' Baillie, William, an officer in the English service, and an amateur. We have of him many pretty prints, in the manner of Rembrandt; among others,

' A very good copy of the Weigher of Gold, a capital piece of that master.

' He

‘He has restored the plate of Rembrandt, representing the Paralytic cured; known under the name of the Piece of a Hundred Florins.

‘Sufanna Justified, and the Elders Confounded, after Gerbrant Vander Eckout, &c.’

A number of other pieces, either in the manner of Rembrandt, or in the dark manner (mezzotinto), after different masters, Italian, Flemish, and Dutch, whom he has copied with much intelligence. His works form a volume pretty considerable and interesting.

‘Bartolozzi, Francis, a skillful Italian engraver, born at Florence in 1730, now living at London. We have of him a large quantity of prints, much sought after by the amateurs; and with justice, as well because of the correctness of the design, as for the agreeable engraving, which qualities he knows how to unite in all that comes from his skillful hands, viz.

‘Clytia changed into a Sun-Flower, a large piece in a round form, after Annibal Caracci.

‘The Sleep of the Infant Jesus, contemplated by his Mother; a subject known under the name of The Silence; after the same master: and which has already been engraven by Hanzelman, and by Picart le Romain.

‘The Adulterous Woman, a piece of middle size in breadth, after Augustin Caracci.

‘A Circumcision, a large piece in height, after Guercino.

‘A number of other pieces, after the same master, from pieces preserved in Italy and in England.

‘The Dictator Camillus coming to deliver Rome when taken by Brennus, a large piece in breadth, after Sebastian Ricci.

‘A Holy Family, a small piece in breadth, after Benedetto Lutti.

‘His works are numerous. His assiduity in labour and his promptness of execution have produced a prodigious number of precious morsels.

‘Bersenew, John, a Russian, born in Siberia in 1762: engraved at Paris, in 1787, a piece after Dominichino, from the gallery of the royal palace, and many other pieces of that collection.’

A Siberian engraver forms a curious instance of the progress of the arts. In the course of time we may have engravers among the Laplanders.

‘Boydell, John, an engraver and printseller residing in London. We have by him some etchings, and some engravings, among others,

‘Two Landscapes enriched with Figures and Animals, large pieces in breadth, after Berghem.

‘He is editor of an infinite number of plates, after the most celebrated pictures in England, which he has caused to be executed by the best engravers at London, English and foreign. The money which this enterprize has scattered among the artists has deservedly procured him the title of a protector of the arts, and a friend of the artists.

‘Hogarth, William, an English painter. There are, however, of his a number of prints engraven after his own pictures, and some of them etched. The most of his subjects are historical, moral, and critical. We find in his prints characters of an extraordinary expression, as well as in his pictures.’

What are we to make of the article *Jamnitzner*, born at Nurenberg in 1508, and who died there in 1486? See p. 285. See also *Knapton*, p. 302, and *Russel*, p. 303, for like errors.

‘Kachlach, an artist of Malabar, has engraven in wood, about the year 1720, a number of pagodas of different sizes, having many heads and arms: but these singular plates never reach us, except illuminated with the juice of herbs, in the most lively tints, and highly coloured.

‘Legat, F. a Scotchman, and an *eleve* of Strange. We know of him two pieces, of middle size in height, after Rungiman (Runciman), representing Andromeda and Fortune, &c.

‘Palch, John, an English engraver, executed in 1770 twenty-six heads after paintings of Masaccio, which were in a monastery at Florence, consumed by fire in 1771.

‘Piranesi, Giovanni Battista, an Italian architect, of whom we have infinite etchings. His works consist of sixteen volumes in folio, principally representing the most remarkable edifices of ancient Rome, and which rendered that city the most magnificent, as it was the capital of the universe, such as the author has imagined them to be, or as he thought he found them in their vestiges. Besides this work, the fruit of a profound research, Piranesi has given compositions in architecture of his own invention, in which he shews no less genius, than erudition in his other productions. He died at Rome in 1778, aged 70.

‘Scorodoamo, Gabriel, a Russian, has engraved at London, in the dotted manner, several round prints after Mortimer.’

M. Bafan has repeatedly expressed great contempt of *la manière pointillée des Anglois*, or the dotted manner of the English engravers; and we have certainly gone too much into it, to the neglect of that manly style of plain engraving, which has pleased for two centuries and a half, and will always please, while the dotted manner will pass away like a fashion.

‘Siegen, —, an officer in the service of the prince of Hesse, was, as is said, the inventor of mezzotinto in 1643. He engraved the portrait of Eleonora de Gonzaguez, wife of the emperor Ferdinand II. He taught this art to the prince Palatine Robert, who carried it into England, *in the voyage that he made there with Charles.*

‘N. B. See in the King’s Cabinet the Portfolio of Amateurs.

‘Vaillant, Valerant, a skillful engraver in mezzotinto, born at Lisle in Flanders, in 1623, and who died at Amsterdam in 1677, was an eleve of Erasmus Quillinus. He was the first who engraved in mezzotinto, a secret which had been confided to him by prince Robert, high-admiral of England, who invented it.’

How is this article to be reconciled with the preceding?

‘Watson, Caroline, born at London in 1759, engraved there, in 1785, a small portrait of Woollett, a celebrated English engraver, after Stuart, &c.

‘Garrick at the Feet of Shakespeare’s Statue, after Pine, a large piece in height.

‘West, C. engraved at London, in 1787, the View of an Iron Bridge, *constructed in the environs of that city.*’

Upon the whole, we expected to find more information, and fewer errors, in a work which has followed many others of the same kind.

La Compagne de la Jeunesse, ou Entretiens d’une Institutrice avec son Eleve. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Edwards. London.

THE authoress of this amiable little work informs us, in her preface, that many authors have written upon education, but that the subject is not yet exhausted: on the contrary, the diversity of characters renders it every day more fertile. That of all the books, which have lately appeared, for the use of very young ladies, the *Conversations of Emilia* seem to her the best calculated to make an impression upon the infant mind. That this book, put into the hands of a little lady, full of wit and vivacity, and always perused by her with new pleasure, led our authoress to judge that this was the most amusing style, and, perhaps, the most instructive for young minds. That she has accordingly chosen the conversations of Emilia for the model of her work. But as Emilia is a child of five years of age, lively, yet mild and docile, obedient to her mother, of excessive sensibility; and who, in fact, appears almost faultless, and whose conversations with her mother seem to have no end but to afford her an agreeable amusement, and give her an extreme facility in expressing her thoughts: on the contrary,

the

the *eleve* in the present work is lively, passionate, indocile, obstinate, insensible; and, in short, unites in herself all the faults of infancy. She is supposed to be placed, at eight years of age, under the care of a governess; and is in this first part conducted to the age of twelve. If these volumes should be favourably received, our authoress intends to publish a second part, containing the five last years of her disciple's education.

As a specimen of this pleasing publication, we shall select a part of the second dialogue; but our translation cannot pretend to the female grace, and *naivete* of the original.

'*The Disciple.* It is a long time, my dear friend, since you promised me the History of the Flying-man.

'*The Governess.* I am now about to fulfill my promise.

'*The Disciple.* But tell me first if fable be only the history of the false gods?

'*The Governess.* It is also that of the heroes of antiquity, and of the fabulous times, that is of these times concerning which we have no certain ideas.

'*The Disciple.* Good. Now tell us your story.

'*The Governess.* Under the reign of a king of Crete, called Minos, a famous architect, named Dedalus, built a labyrinth, which had so many turnings and windings, that he who once entered could not get out. Dedalus having displeased king Minos, was shut up in this labyrinth with his son Icarus. The desire of liberty inspired him with the idea of making wings for himself, and for his son; and having succeeded, he fixed them with wax to the shoulders of Icarus, and to his own. He recommended to the young man not to approach too near the sun, whose heat would certainly melt the wax of his wings; but Icarus, having neglected the advice of his father, wished to fly high, and approach the sun, and was the victim of his too great confidence in himself: his wings separated, and he fell into the sea, since called the Icarian.

'*The Disciple.* And what became of his father?

'*The Governess.* His father happily arrived in Thrace.

'*The Disciple.* Icarus well deserved what happened to him, because he did not follow the advice of his father.

'*The Governess.* Your remark, my dear little friend, is excellent, and I conjecture from it that you do exactly what you are ordered; and that you do not resemble Icarus. You blush!

'*The Disciple.* Because I believe that you are making a jest of me.

'*The Governess.* Not at all. Why that idea?

'*The Disciple.* Because I am sure that you have been told that I am pretty obstinate; and that if I am resisted I go into strange passions. You smile!

'*The Governess.* I smile to see you accuse yourself of a fault which does not exist in you, or is merely accidental.

'*The Disciple.* I assure you that I am very passionate; and that to this hour no one has been able to overcome me.

'*The Governess.* Say that none would take the trouble.

'*The Disciple.* Every way has been tried, but in vain.

'*The Governess.* And, for my part, I protest to you that you would have ceased to be passionate, if you had found any one who had resisted you with firmness. Come, my dear little friend, tell me sincerely, is it not true that you would never be in a passion, if you were allowed to have all your will; and that you are not passionate but in hopes of getting your wish.'

This train of reasoning leads the governess to inform her disciple, that the only way of gaining her intentions with her shall be gentleness; and passion a sure mean of protracting them.

We with pleasure recommend this work as a valuable addition to our books of education.

Les Entretiens de Frederic le Grand, peu de Jours avant sa Mort, avec M. Le Chevalier Zimmermann, Medecin et Conseiller de S. M. Britanique. Ouvrage public en Allemand par M. Zimmermann, traduit sur la septieme Edition. 8vo. Paris. Edwards. London. 1790.

THIS remarkable work has been favourably received on the continent, and a translation now appears in a language more universally understood than the German original. It is indeed no wonder that a book of so new a nature, and so provocative of curiosity, should have engaged much attention. As no translation has yet appeared in English, we shall endeavour to give the reader some idea of it.

Dr. Zimmermann, who is a Swiss physician of high reputation at Hanover, was invited by the late king of Prussia to visit him, on account of his sickness, by a letter dated at Potsdam, the 6th of June 1786. The doctor, by the duke of York's permission, soon after went to Potsdam; and this work contains an account of the king's disorder, an incurable dropsy and asthma, and of the various conversations which passed between him and the doctor, till the doctor's return to Hanover on the 11th of July; the king surviving his return thirty-eight days, or till the 17th of August. The minuteness of the descriptions and of the anecdotes, keep the curiosity always alive, and the attention always engaged. A few extracts we shall submit to the reader in a translation.

Frederic having perused the duke of York's letter, began the first conversation thus:

'*The King.* I am under great obligations to the duke of York for permitting you to come here

'*I. The*

‘ *I.* The duke of York desires as ardently as I do that my journey may be useful to your majesty.

‘ *The King.* How is the duke of York ?

‘ *I.* Very well. He is always gay, active, full of fire.

‘ *The King.* I love the duke of York as tenderly as a father can love a son.

‘ *I.* The duke of York feels in a very lively manner the value of the sentiments with which your majesty honours him.

‘ *The King.* I am very ill.

‘ *I.* The eye of your majesty is as good as when I had the honour of being in your presence fifteen years ago. I remark not the smallest diminution of the fire and vigour with which the eyes of your majesty were animated, &c.’

But to give part of a more interesting conversation, let us pass to that on literature, p. 40.

‘ *The King.* Locke and Newton were the greatest thinkers among mankind; but the French know better than the English how to express things well.

‘ *I.* The English language is, beyond contradiction, very proper for speculative philosophy and the higher sciences; but the parliament still sees some new Demosthenes issue from its bosom. The English tongue also bends to the simple and noble style of history: it is even inferior to no language for gay and pleasant works.

‘ *The King.* Robertson and Hume are historians of the first rank; I esteem them both.

‘ *I.* Gibbon perhaps surpasses them both. All the dignity and all the charms of which the historical style is susceptible, are united in Gibbon. His periods have an enchanting harmony, and all his thoughts have nerve and vigour.

‘ *The King.* What has Gibbon written ?

I exposed in substance the contents of Gibbon’s work on the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. The king allowed me to speak for a long time without interruption, appeared to hear me with much attention and pleasure; and then threw a glance upon the German literature.

‘ *The King.* How do the sciences go on at Hanover ?

‘ *I.* We have at Hanover good heads; and without apparent disputes, the one sharpens the other, and thus every year some interesting sparks are produced. The Hanoverians owe to Gottingen both their knowledge and their learning.

‘ *The King.* Gottingen has greatly distinguished itself, but there is no Hanoverian among its professors.

‘ *I.* Many of the greatest men of Germany are fixt and teach at Gottingen; and there are many professors of distinction who are Hanoverians by birth, for example, Meiners and Wrisberg.

‘*The King.* I know Meiners, he has written a very good book on Switzerland.

‘*I.* It is a very good book, written with a real attachment for Switzerland; although much offence has been taken at it in all the thirteen cantons.’

Next day a part of the conversation turns upon the reform which the duke of York has effected in Hanoverian manners, by banishing that Spanish pride and etiquette for which Hanover had been long remarkable.

In another conversation our author gives us a high idea of the talents of the Russian empress. He informs the king that in summer 1785, she made a journey of 250 German miles, in the best humour, and with the greatest gaiety; for good humour never abandons her, and all the day her mind is occupied and active. In her hours of repose she has lately written two codes of law, one for the Russian nobility, and another for the towns of her empire. She has undertaken an astonishing work in the philosophical line, a Comparative Glossary of all Languages original or mixt: and Dr. Zimmermann adds, that he had that year received from her, in a present, some comedies, written by herself, full of salt and wit, and intended to crush superstition and religious quackery. The titles were, 1. Cagliostro the Rogue. 2. The Blinded Man. 3. The Shaman of Siberia; and they were printed at Berlin, 1788. The king consents that the empress of Russia is a woman of extraordinary genius; and, in a note, we are told that he always thought so, and that she engaged his constant discourse and admiration.

It appears in the course of these dialogues that the king, even during his last illness, was extremely intemperate in eating, and particularly fond of those foods which were most indigestible. This strange passion gave origin to violent fits of sickness, and destroyed in an hour the effects of many days medicine. It affords a convincing proof that the strongest minds, in some respects, are in others the weakest: and a more lamentable evidence of human imbecillity can hardly be adduced, than that of Frederic the Great sacrificing his health and happiness to a gratification of ten minutes, in eating macaroni pye, or Prussian pears.

The king’s sentiments concerning Russia may be interesting to our readers.

‘*The King.* The examination of a great and complicated object is extremely difficult.

‘*I.* Since the beginning of the world, no one has possessed that art better than your majesty.

‘*The King.* A kingdom larger than France cannot be well governed.

‘ *I.* Either the people of the provinces do not obey the government, or the governors rather do what they please, than what is ordered them.

‘ *The King.* Russia is an empire too extensive, too vast.

‘ *I.* Not for the wisdom and courage of Catharine; but, in the end, that empire may perhaps be crushed under its own weight.

‘ *The King.* Do not you believe that.

‘ *I.* Sire, the Russian empire may one day be divided, as that of Alexander after his death. Governors of provinces may assume the royalty in their provinces; and fight with neighbouring governors, who may do the same.

‘ *The King.* In this you are in the right; I believe so too.’

At the close of the last conversation the king dismisses our author with these words, ‘ Adieu, my good, my dear Mr. Zimmermann: do not forget the old man whom you have seen here.’

The latter half of the book is occupied with many entertaining anecdotes and remarks concerning Frederic, and his brutal father. We shall select an anecdote as a proof of Frederic’s goodness of heart, which our author labours hard to establish.

‘ The king was one day alone in his little chamber at Sans Souci; before the open window was a casket full of parcels of ducats. He slumbered, and of course did not see one of his lacqueys, who, at that moment passed under the window, and seeing the king asleep, took without ceremony a parcel of ducats; but Frederic soon perceived that this parcel was missing. He called one of the hussars of his chamber, and said to him, there is a parcel of these ducats wanting, and I must learn who has stolen it. The hussar, in a great fright, assured the king that he knew nothing of it; and that his majesty was perhaps mistaken, for it appeared impossible that these ducats could be stolen in his own presence. If you cannot, answered the king, name me thief, I shall render you responsible for the robbery. The poor hussar, in great consternation, represented again to the king that he could not answer for what passed in his apartment when he was not there. I am not unjust, said Frederic, but you must know your comrades, and know if there be a rogue among them. The hussar immediately enquired among the domestics to discover the thief, and succeeded. The king summoned the knave to his chamber, and said to him, you rogue, you have stolen a parcel of ducats, hold, here is another of equal value: run; leave my house, and this country as quickly as you can; lose no time, for if they catch you, you will infallibly be hanged.’

Exemplum Typographiæ Sinicæ, etc. i. e. A Specimen of Chinese Typography, executed by means of moveable Types, expressing the Figure of the Letters. By John Gottlob Imman Breitkopf. Leipzig. Printed at the Author's own Press. 1789.

MR. Breitkopf, an eminent bookseller and printer at Leipzig, who, during a long series of years, has cultivated the typographic art in Germany, offers here a specimen of Chinese typography, executed with moveable types, which hitherto has been thought impracticable. Though the ingenious inventor of this new mode of printing is aware that his own country can hardly be benefited by the discovery, or that he shall ever be rewarded for the pains he has taken, yet he thinks he has opened a way to facilitate the knowledge of Chinese literature and arts in other European countries.—Mr. B. is in hopes that within a short time he shall be able to render his invention more perfect; or, that in countries where more opportunities offer to become acquainted with the Chinese language and Chinese writings, some liberal and ingenious persons will improve the hints which he has given.

If we could flatter ourselves that this invention might change the nature of our commerce with the Chinese, and turn the balance in our favour, we should warmly recommend it to the fostering care of those who appear as men of consequence in the meetings held in Leadenhall-street. But as we see at present no prospects of advantage which this art could promote, we apprehend that no printer or bookseller would venture to print upon speculation Chinese books, to be bartered for tea, that the detrimental exportation of silver to that country might be lessened.

There are three words in Chinese types very distinctly printed on the title-page; and twelve more are given in the same manner at the end of this curious work; which, however, makes but one sheet, consisting of the title, a short Latin epistle, and the specimens before mentioned.

Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy, for 1788. (Concluded from p. 250.)

THE two first articles, in the department of Polite Literature, relate to Shakspeare, this inexhausted, exhaustless, mine of verbal criticism, of historical disquisition, and philosophical enquiry. Dr. Stack examines an Essay on the Character of Falstaff, published some years since, in which the author, with the most refined ingenuity, endeavoured to persuade his readers, that it was the design of Shakspeare to represent Falstaff as ‘constitutionally’ brave, and assuming the garb of cowardice to increase the mirth of the scene, or to divert his companions. That work always appeared to us as a *jeu d’esprit*,

spirit, designed to shew how much might be said on a desperate subject; how far what seemed incredible might be rendered probable. Yet those, who sat down to admire the author's talents, with this view, rose generally half persuaded, or at least full of doubts and suspicion. Dr. Stack pursues the author in his arguments, and shews how much he conceals, what he refines, and in what manner he eludes or changes different circumstances to render his position probable.

The observations on the first act of Shakspeare's *Tempest* are written by an under-graduate of the university of Dublin. He disclaims verbal criticism, having only at hand the editions of Pope and Warburton. Indeed, in the little specimen he gives of his talents, as a verbal critic, we do not form any high opinion of his ability. In his translation of the sentence of the second Philippic, 'Utinam Cn. Pompei, &c.' his inversions are inelegant, and the language is unsuitable to the situation of the orator, who is calmly relating a matter of fact, and repeating what he had said in conversation to Pompey. Our author's remarks relate to a detached sentence, not to the passage as it stands in the oration.

The *Tempest* of Shakspeare is undoubtedly one of the noblest efforts of the human imagination: every thing is supernatural, and the human beings are those puppets, which they must, perhaps, always appear to superior intelligence. The play begins with the wildness, the interest, which a storm, and the wreck of a ship must occasion and excite; and we may add, with our author, that the characters, even in this confusion, are in part developed with singular skill and address. The next scene our author praises improperly; the conversation between Miranda and Prospero, except in the conduct, displays as little management and skill, as that between Simo and Sosia, in the *Andria* of Terence. The situation of the parties, the natural untutored observations of Miranda, and above all, the clue, which Shakspeare almost alone found to the human heart, and which he employs in this scene, render it not only not tiresome but interesting. Even the mechanical pauses, which at first appear disagreeable, and perhaps were really designed to relieve the actor, seem almost natural by the sleep coming on, when it was necessary for Prospero to give further orders. But to go on.

Preternatural agents, however they may surprise, seldom interest us. The difference of their nature, passions and pursuits, makes us regard them as an order of beings in whom we have no concern. It remained for Shakspeare to give them such characters as must excite our love or abhorrence, such sentiments and manners as never intrude upon those of the human species, yet force us to sympathize in their pleasure and their pains. The spirit now introduced at once lays hold on our affections; its cha-

raſter is immediately diſcovered, and is ſuch a character as we cannot contemplate with indifference. Proſpero himſelf is, with the greateſt propriety, repreſented as loving it. Delicate, gentle, timid and ſubmiſſive, it executes the commands of its employer with an alacrity, quickened by gratitude, and by the expectation of promiſed liberty. But whence is it that we are more intereſted by Shakeſpear's Ariel, than by the attending ſpirits in Milton's Comus? I anſwer, becauſe the former has paſſions ſimilar to our own, burns with deſire, or exults in hope; chearfully ſubmits to bondage from motives of generoſity, yet at the ſame time feels the wretchedneſs of bondage, and pants for the enjoyment of freedom. But of the latter, we only know that they are ſent to ſuccour virtue in diſtreſs; that they diſcharge their commiſſion with cold apathy; that they enjoy unruffled happineſs themſelves, and look down upon the perturbations and cares which agitate mortals. What emotion, but that of reverence, can be excited by a character which is itſelf exempt from all? Hence we may obſerve that if at any time ſpiritual agents be repreſented, they ſhould be of a middle order, ſubject to various degrees of pleaſure and of pain. Human paſſions are moſt of them founded on the imperfections of our nature, and nothing that is perfect can become their proper object.'

Though our author admires the character of Caliban, his introduction is, he thinks, deſtructive to the unity of the drama. It rather, in our opinion, gives it a force, a fulneſs, and archneſs, by ſhewing the different effects of enchantment on minds differently diſpoſed and enlightened. The adventures of Trincalo and Stephano with Caliban, no lover of nature would probably be willing to loſe. The reſt of this Eſſay, and indeed the Eſſay on the whole, deſerves our commendation.

Mr. Hardy has communicated ſome thoughts on a few paſſages of the Agamemnon of *Æſchylus*. It was Mr. Wood's remark, that the language of Greece was that of Troy, as there is no inſtance in the poems of Homer, who is in other reſpects very minute in his deſcriptions, of the intervention of an interpreter. If we were to examine the queſtion at length, we ſhould probably conclude, that the opinion was not probable, and not ſufficiently ſupported by this argument, or by the pretended Grecian origin of the Trojans. Theſe are circumſtances, which the annaliſt only, with a dry minuteness, records: the poetical fire raiſes the bard above ſuch conſiderations; and, when we reflect, that many hundred years elapſed from the period of the war to the age of Homer, that Homer compoſed his poems for the uſe of the Greeks, it will hardly be expected, that the ſubject ſhould ever have occurred. We muſt confeſs, however, that Mr. Hardy's arguments from *Æſchylus*, are not convincing.

Cassandra,

Cassandra, when first brought to Clytemnestra, was silent. Clytemnestra, in an angry mood, says, unless she has a barbarian language, twittering like a swallow, I will persuade her to speak*. This at least implies, that Clytemnestra was not aware that the Trojans had a difference of language. When she again desires her, instead of speech, to make signs, the prophetic fit comes on; her gestures appear to be violent; and the *real* observation of the chorus is, that she seems to make signs for an interpreter, as her gestures are as wild as those of a beast just caught (*ὡς νεκίρεται*), Clytemnestra immediately adds, she is mad. In verses 1210—1212, there is such an evident defect in the text, that nothing can be drawn from it, or we must suppose a very uncommon and unaccountable ellipse. Yet the words *αλλοθρην πολιν*, remain as irrefragable evidences of our author's system, and cannot be easily disposed of, for it would be too unreasonable to suggest, merely for the sake of this argument, that the first word should be *αλλοθεν*; added to which, it would be a pleonasm equivalent to *ποντες περην*. An argument of more importance is, that the observation of the chorus appears not so much directed to the language as to the facts: 'though bred beyond the sea, in a *distant* city, you speak of these things as familiarly as those who are present.' Besides, whatever force the word *αλλοθρην* may be supposed to have in this place, the fact of the Trojans using a different language seems also not to have been known at first even to the chorus. Though our author, we suspect, has not been exact in these philological discussions, we do not think that they materially influence the principal position: in that we are inclined to agree with him.

Mr. Preston, in his Essay on Ridicule, adopts the definition of Hobbes. Mirth, in this philosopher's opinion, arises from a sudden conception of some eminency in ourselves, by comparison, with our own infirmity formerly, or that of others. The sudden conception; our own excellence; and the comparison of this excellence with the infirmity, rather than the vice, or the truly disgraceful and the painful situation, are the leading and discriminated parts of the definition. All the circumstances and effects of mirth are supposed, by Mr. Preston, to result from this comparison, implying superiority in ourselves, and a contempt for those who are the objects of mirth. Laughter is the expression of mirth, and our author assumes Mr. Burke's supposition, that it is at least attended with a state of relaxation, assisted by irritation. If, by relaxation, is meant that the mind or body must be free from pain or any cause of tension, but what may be overcome by the mirthful object, we may admit the position; but the irritation as a

† ΑΓΑΜΕΜΝΩΝ, v. 1058. We prefer Schutz' emendation, as the only consistent method of interpreting it; unfortunately we have no other edition at hand.

mere mental effect is less exact, and at least the term should be altered, to avoid confusion. The whole system should be, however, revised, for it is not physiologically, nor metaphysically correct, though, in general, it will contribute to explain all the various appearances. The question, whether ridicule is a test of truth, has been often answered in the negative. We shall extract our author's observations on it.

‘ The variable nature of ridicule may serve to convince us that *ridicule* cannot be the *test of truth*; a *test* should be independent and substantive; *ridicule* depends in a great measure on the temper and disposition, the education, endowments, acquisitions, habits, and pursuits of the observer; *truth* is universal and invariable; but were *ridicule* the *test of truth* the same identical propositions would be *true* to one man and *false* to another.

‘ Mr. Brown, in his essays on Shaftesbury, has laboured, and at some length, to show that *ridicule* cannot be the *test of truth*, because it is a mode of *eloquence* tending to affect and agitate the mind; as much a mode of eloquence as the *ἐλεεινόν*, the pitiable or pathetic; and his reasoning is conclusive; but this point may be demonstrated in a few words, and I think with a mathematical strictness: *Ridicule* cannot be the *test of truth*, for being a branch or mode of the imitative arts, it presents, as that name imports, a picture of some object, and cannot be the *criterion* of that of which it is only the *representation*. 2dly, The *ridiculous* not only consists in the representation of a picture, but it is a single positive picture; there is no relative view, no collation of two objects; but to the existence of *truth* or *falsehood* the collation of two objects is necessary. 3dly, The perception of *ridicule* is instantaneous, the perception of *truth* or *falsehood* is a progressive operation of the mind. A proposition must be formed; the subject and predicate of this proposition must be compared, and from this comparison the understanding collects their agreement or disagreement. This progression takes place even in propositions called *intuitive*, that is to say, where the truth or falsehood is perceived without the intervention of proofs or means. Now, if *ridicule* were the test of truth, the perception of the *ridiculous* and the perception of *falsehood* would be one and the same, and would in every case be not *progressive* but *instantaneous*.’

These arguments will only apply to a certain extent, for some positions, evidently true, are as liable to be rendered ridiculous as others which are, with equal certainty, false. Mr. Bayes' dance, representing the eclipse, is an instance of the former kind, perhaps more humorous than the voyage to the world of Des Cartes. Even the metaphysics of Stahl are rendered truly laughable in the works of the late Mr. Tucker, under the assumed name of Edward Search; and it is not easy to say what may not be rendered ridiculous. That a sudden
conception

conception cannot be the test of truth, is, on the other side, too hasty an assertion. A person might laugh heartily at some of Swift's representations in a voyage to Laputa, if a few words were altered in his account of the visit to the philosophical academy, yet it would be, in that case, not an unfaithful representation of some of the attempts of philosophers, which have led to no inconsiderable discoveries.—But we must now haste to the Antiquities.

An Account of three Metal Trumpets, found in the County of Limerick, in the Year 1787. By Ralph Ousley, Esq. M. R. I. A. Communicated by Joseph Cooper Walker, Esq. Secretary to the Committee of Antiquities.—Of these we can give no particular description without the plates, or does the article tend to any useful purpose.

A Martial Ode, sung at the Battle of Cnucha by Fergus, Son of Finn, and addressed to Goll, the Son of Morna; with a literal Translation and Notes. By Silvester O'Halloran, Esq. M. R. I. A. &c. Communicated by the Right Hon. the Earl of Charlemont.—Mr. O'Halloran carries us back to the imaginary period, when Ireland was a highly polished country, when its kings were heroes, patrons of literature, legislators, &c. We fear it is wholly visionary; and this ode of the year 155, may with more propriety be brought down to 1355. There are some little inconsistencies in the different productions of the Irish bards. Goll is said, in the advertisement, to have killed Cumhal, the father of Fion; yet, in many other Irish poems, and in Ossian, or, if the Irish please, Oischin, he is represented as the friend of Fingal. This ode, descriptive of the battle fought in 155, is expressly said by miss Brooke to have been delivered in 296 (Crit. Rev. vol. Lxx. p. 30.), and by Fergus the son of Fion, whose friend Goll was. But the improbability of the chronology does not depend on these inconsistencies only, as we have lately had occasion to shew at some length.

Memoir of the Language, Manners, and Customs of an Anglo-Saxon Colony, settled in the Baronies of Forth and Bargie, in the County of Wexford, Ireland, in 1167, 1168, and 1169. By Charles Vallancey, LL. D. Member of the Royal Societies of London, Dublin, and Edinburgh; of the Academy of Cortona, and of the Belles Lettres, of the Antiquarian Society of Perth, and of the Philosophical Society of Philadelphia. Communicated by the Right Hon. the Earl of Charlemont, P. R. I. A.—These colonies of the Anglo-Saxons came over in the time of Henry, and were rewarded with the districts of Forth and Bargie, by Dermot, for their assistance. They seem to have preserved their peculiar manners, and they form not an unpleasing picture of the ancient British freedom.

The people of these baronies live well, are industrious, cleanly

and of good morals; the poorest farmer eats meat twice a week, and the table of the wealthy farmer is daily covered with beef, mutton or fowl. The beverage is home-brewed ale and beer, of an excellent flavour and colour. The houses of the poorest are well built and well thatched; all have out-offices for cattle, fowls, carts or cars. The people are well clothed, are strong and laborious. The women do all manner of rustic work, ploughing excepted; they receive equal wages with the men.

‘ In this delightful spot the greatest harmony subsists between the landlord and the farmer; and it is common to meet the tenant at the landlord’s table. Such is their aversion to idleness, that if a beggar is met in these baronies he is immediately handed from house to house until he is out of the barony.

‘ The professed religion here is the Roman Catholic; there are about one hundred to one Protestant.

‘ Marriage is solemnized much in the same manner as with the Irish. The relations and friends bring a profusion of viands of all kinds, and feasting and dancing continues all the night; the bride sits veiled at the head of the table, unless called out to dance, when the chair is filled by one of the bride-maids. At every marriage an apple is cut into small pieces, and thrown among the crowd; a custom they brought from England, but the origin of it had not descended with it.

‘ The produce of the soil in these baronies is great, the whole is under tillage, and near the sea-shore they manure with the seaweed twice a year, and in the memory of the oldest man the ground has never been fallowed, but a plentiful crop obtained every year. The parish of Carne contains five hundred acres, all or mostly under tillage; this parish pays 100*l.* a year for tithes to the rector. The church-land of Carne contains sixty acres, of which forty are plowed, and pays to the rector 14*l.* 14*s.* and to the landlord 90*l.* a year.

‘ Fuel is scarce in this district; the chief firing is furze, planted on the tops of all the dikes; these are cut and dried, and bring a good return.’

Their language is the old English, and we are informed by an intelligent correspondent in the west, that if the words are pronounced as they are written, they will give a pretty accurate idea of the Exmore dialect. We have compared the song annexed with a provincial publication, styled Exmore Scolding, and even in such unknown dialects, we can perceive a striking resemblance.

A Descriptive Account of the Fort of Ardnorcher, or Horse-Leap, near Kilbeggan, in the County of Westmeath, Ireland; with Conjectures concerning its Use, and the Time of its Erection. By Mr. John Brownrigg. In a Letter to Joseph C. Walker, Esq. Secretary to the Committee of Antiquities. —The fort Ardnorcher seems to have been a natural rock,

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converted in the earliest times to the purposes of a fort, and afterwards strengthened by Hugh de Lacy in his line of fortifications for the protection of the English settlers. It affords no very interesting speculations or observations.

An Account of an ancient Sepulchre discovered in the County of Kildare, Ireland, in the Year 1788. By William Beauford, A. B. In a Letter to Joseph C. Walker, Esq. Secretary to the Committee of Antiquities.—In this tomb the skeleton was found in a sitting attitude, with an urn near it, in which were seemingly the remains of some oatmeal. It was not uncommon for the northern nations to bury some eatables with the dead body; so that it was probably the remains of some northern Pagan—Peace to his manes.

A Description of an ancient Monument in the Church of Lusk, in the County of Dublin. By Col. Charles Vallancey, Member of the Royal Societies of London, Edinburgh, and Dublin, &c. Communicated by the Earl of Charlemont, P. R. I. A.—It is the tomb of Walter Dermot and his wife Monica, interred about the middle of the sixth century. The two open hands, not indeed in the attitude of supplication, but laid by the side of each other expanded, while the body of the crucifix seems to conceal the wrists, draws col. Vallancey into the oriental regions, and the dangerous tracts of etymology. The most ingenious part of this essay is the proposal to explain the hieroglyphics by synonyms, but it is a plan which will suggest more various explanations than the most fanciful conjectures. Let us select an instance.

‘ It is recorded by the most serious historians, that when Darius demanded *earth* and *water* of the Scythians, as a token of homage and of surrendering their country to him; instead thereof, Indathyrfus, their king, sent him a *bird*, a *mouse*, a *frog*, and *five arrows*. Darius would fain have construed these into a submission; saying, the mouse is bred in the *earth*, the frog lives in *water*, and the bird may be compared to a *horse*, and by the *arrows* they seem to deliver their whole force into my hands. But Gobrias was of opinion that the Scythian gave them to understand by such a message, that unless the Persians could ascend into the air like a bird, or conceal themselves in the earth like mice, or plunge into the fens like frogs, they should inevitably perish by the arrows.

‘ We are told by Horus Apollo, that by the *hawk*, the Egyptians signified God, sublimity, excellence, humility, wind, blood, victory, the soul, &c.; by the *dog*, a scribe, a prophet, spleen, smelling, laughter, sneezing, an officer, a judge, for reasons which appear as ridiculous as the meaning was precarious.

‘ I cannot think that so wise a people as the Egyptians would register their public acts in so vague and uncertain a manner, and that we want the key to explain their symbols in a more satisfactory manner. That key appears to me to have been the synonyma of

their language. As in the monument of Lusk *man* signifying the hand, implied also *propitiousness*; *man* also signifies strength; hence the hand, in another attitude, implies power. “Du Celte *man*, fort, elevation, parfait en bonté, &c. &c. vinrent *man*, la main, lat. manus,” &c. &c.

‘Let us now try to explain the symbolic answer of Indathyrfus, by the Hiberno-Scythian dialect, taking the synonyma of each object.

‘*Ean*, a bird, signifies also warlike instruments; war, as in *Ean gníomb*, dexterity at weapons. Heb. הנה *hbane*, to war.

‘*Luc*, a mouse—a prisoner, an hostage.

‘*Lofgan*, a frog—wounded, maimed in battle.

‘*Crann-corr*, and *Suam-nim*, to cast lots by arrows; fate, destiny; and these were always five in number.

‘*Crann-corr* and *suam-nim* (i. e. *facere suam*) occur frequently in Irish, signifying to cast a fate by arrows. *Crann* is an arrow, as in *crann-tabbal*, a balista, or caster of arrows; *suam* is the Arabic *سهم* *suham*, an arrow; whence *suam kuzca*, the arrow of destiny; in Arabic *قُرآن* *kuran*, or *قُرْن* *kurn*, is also an arrow; whence our *crann*.

‘I therefore interpret Indathyrfus’s message, thus, “If you proceed in the war, the fate of your army will be, either to be taken prisoners, or be cut in pieces in the field.”

On the Silver Medal lately dug up in the Park of Dunganon, County of Tyrone, the Seat of the Right Hon. Lord Welles. By Col. Charles Vallancey, Member of the Royal Societies of London, Edinburgh, and Dublin, &c. &c. Communicated by the Right Hon. the Earl of Charlemont, P. R. I. A.—This is said to be one of the Arabian talismanic medals styled *Ain*; but the author who could raise a Chinese cash to this rank, may easily mistake a common Indian coin. The numerals 1187 should certainly have saved this useless effusion of science.

An Historical Essay on the Irish Stage. By Joseph C. Walker, Esq. Member of the Royal Irish Academy, Fellow of the Literary and Antiquarian Society of Perth, and honorary Member of the Etruscan Academy of Cortona.—The alternate responses of the bards, the rustic ballet, or the mummers, may have been the first dramatic efforts of the Irish. The first appearance of a more regular attempt was, as usual, in the mysteries and moralities; and Bale entered the lists in this way, to support the doctrine of grace, faith, and necessity. The expences were sometimes supplied by the corporation of Dublin, and sometimes by the different incorporated trades: in a few instances only by the church. The first master of the revels in Ireland was the famous Ogelby, the translator of Homer and Virgil; and the first theatre was erected in Werburgh-street, in 1635. It closed in 1641, and that in Orange-street (Smock Alley) was opened in 1661.

A R E V I E W
OF
P U B L I C A F F A I R S,
FROM
JANUARY TO MAY, 1791.

AT the request of several correspondents we have been induced to annex this article to our Appendix, and it is intended to be regularly continued at the end of every future Volume of our Review, and each retrospect of course will contain the events of four months; but in general we shall reserve the incidents of the month immediately preceding publication for the next Appendix, in order to have more certain and mature accounts, and more time for arrangement; and, upon the other hand, we shall sometimes commence with affairs prior in time to the precise date of our political Review.

Our reasons for this addition to our plan, are chiefly the following.

The readers of our periodical work in foreign countries, and settlements abroad, have seldom an opportunity of consult-

ing the political prints, and the expence of procuring them is considerable ; upon their account alone it can hardly be considered as improper to set apart a few pages, for a more methodical digest of public affairs than is to be found, except in the Annual Registers. But this is far from being the only class of our readers, which we have to consider upon the present occasion.

Literary men seldom bestow any time or attention upon the desultory accounts to be found in the diurnal prints, in which party virulence, the lye of the day, the tale of domestic scandal, too often supply the place of great public incidents. A clear and unbiassed detail of political affairs may therefore prove satisfactory to a class of readers, which we particularly wish to gratify.

And as the Foreign Literature, contained in our Appendix, is not an engaging subject to common readers, it is believed that they will be pleased to find matter more attractive : and that thus no class can have any cause to object to this enlargement of our plan, the laborious nature of which can only be compensated by our hopes of giving additional satisfaction.

These reasons are further strengthened by the singular complexion of the times, so full of great revolutions and unexpected events, that history almost assumes the charms of fable, and the dry field of politics seems a region of enchantment and romance.

Nor must the political state of countries be considered as a theme foreign to a literary Journal, for between the politics
and

and the literature of any country there is a sure and a necessary connection; and the progress of the one has an invariable influence upon the other.

In the Annual Registers the political history forms the first and chief part, and the literary matter only a subservient sequel; here, on the contrary, politics are placed in that attendance upon literature, which they generally follow in the real course of human affairs. But as the Annual Registers have met with deserved success, it is hoped that a slight mixture of the like nature in our journal will not encounter disapprobation:

As we have not the advantages of time, possessed by the compilers of the annual accounts, so we must not pretend to such regular history as they can afford. We only aspire to superior method, and often to more ample or more authentic information upon important subjects than is to be found in publications which embrace a shorter period of time; a history is foreign from the purpose, and from the title of our article; we can go no further than our materials will allow: and it is far from our intention to offer any judgment upon public events, though we may sometimes state the opinions upon both sides, and sometimes present a modest inference. The chief merits which we shall claim will be methodical arrangement, accuracy, authenticity, strict impartiality, and absolute freedom from even the suspicion of party-spirit. Whatever defects our sketch may labour under, it is hoped that our readers will find all parties treated with equal attention and with equal indifference.

The general plan which we propose to follow is to begin with America, and thence pass by Asia and Africa to Europe, and by a gradual approximation end with our own country; and this first sketch is rather more extensive concerning distant countries, than any future one is intended to be, for the purpose of giving the reader a complete idea of the design. In the succeeding Reviews we mean to give a more ample scope to our own concerns and connections, and to pass several distant countries, in which nothing very material may occur.

In other respects we hope gradually to improve our plan by experience, and must request the reader's candour in favour of this first attempt.

NORTH

NORTH AMERICA.

THE American States are gradually emancipating themselves from the consequences of the late war, and from the first shock of separation from the mother country. The election of general Washington to the presidency of the United States has encreased the public confidence, and thrown fresh spirit into their commerce. According to late accounts the exports of Pennsylvania, during last year, doubled in quantity and value those of any year preceding the war; and must bear an annual enlargement from the great extent of ground, which is successively brought into cultivation. The rents of houses in Philadelphia are very high, though many streets have been added to that fine city; the foundations of not less than five hundred houses having been laid since May, 1790. Though the Congress has only fixt its residence in Philadelphia for ten years, yet 100,000 dollars have been voted by the citizens for the erection of an elegant hall to accommodate that body.

The debts of the United States being all funded during last session amount to fifty three millions of dollars, for which funds are provided to pay the interest: and the next session is to fund all the debts of every individual state, the sum of which is supposed to amount to upwards of twenty-one millions of dollars. It has been agreed that each state shall pay the interest on its own debt, up to the 1st of January, 1792, and there after the said debts, amounting to twenty-one millions of dollars, or rather more, are to become the debts of the United States, and funds are to be provided by the Congress for paying the interest.

Several coarse articles are now fabricated in America, such as all kinds of cast-iron ware, and heavy iron goods, as anchors, chimneys, spades, &c. Tanning of leather is carried to a great extent; for though the wages of the workmen are high, yet the hides and the bark being at a low price, they are enabled to sell the leather cheaper than that imported from Britain. But, after all, the British goods maintain their deserved superiority in the American markets; and though several coarse and bulky articles have been made in New England and the Middle States, within these two years, yet the amount in value of goods imported from Britain into America last year, not only exceeded what was imported any year prior to the war, but it appears that since the peace the imports have gradually increased.

The American funds have acquired a sufficient reputation for stability. The Dutch in particular seem to buy into them with eagerness.

The Kentucky convention, it is reported, has determined in favour of a separation. A war with the Shawanese Indians, was also resolved upon.

General Washington has adjusted the plan for building the new city; towards defraying the expences of which the states of Maryland and Virginia have already voted 180,000 dollars. A bank has been established at Baltimore, under an act of the legislature of that state, with a capital raised by subscription of 300,000 dollars; and a commercial treaty between the states and Portugal is in agitation.

General Harmer has taken the Miami Indian town without resistance. A smart action has since taken place with these savages, and a considerable number has been slain on both sides.

A scheme has been brought into parliament, by the minister, for settling the constitution of Canada, a matter of great importance, and long in agitation. The province is to be divided into two governments; and it is hoped that this division will put an end to the debates between the old French inhabitants and the British settlers, as each will have a majority in their own department. A council and a house of assembly are intended for each government: the members of the council being such for life, and reserving power to the British sovereign of annexing to certain honours an hereditary right of sitting in the council. The taxes to be levied, and disposed of, by the legislature of each division. The present laws and ordinances to remain, till altered by the new legislature. The opposition contend that the council is formed upon principles too aristocratical either for the French inhabitants, whose minds are naturally bent to the democratic spirit of their parent country, or for the British, who have the perfect freedom of the American states always before their eyes; and that the only security for the uncertain fidelity of this province, was to have left its people nothing to envy. The ministerial party, on the contrary, assert that the fundamental articles of legislation and taxes secure the province against any real grievance; and that imaginary grievances, and a spirit of revolt, are more apt to arise in a democratic government than in one tempered with a portion of steady aristocracy.

The tumultuous state of the French West Indies it would prove tedious and uninteresting to detail. In the British West India Islands nothing particular has occurred within the limits of our Review.

SOUTH

SOUTH AMERICA.

Notwithstanding the many reports, which have been circulated from time to time, concerning a disposition in the Spanish settlements to revolt from the oppression of the parent country, no attempt of this kind has taken place. And such is the fanaticism and ignorance of the Spaniards, that it is most probable their settlements will be in the hands of the United States, before their eyes are opened to the light of knowledge and liberty.

NEW HOLLAND.

In passing from America to Asia, as our plan directs, we are attracted by a new object, the establishment of a British colony in this vast island, or perhaps more properly continent, between America and Asia. Our settlement fronts those of the Spaniards in South America, and, though at a great distance, is only divided from them by an open ocean; a circumstance which, as is supposed, has rather excited their jealousy, and was perhaps one incentive to the late dispute. We shall not examine politically into the propriety or advantage of this remote settlement, which is said to cost this country three hundred pounds for every criminal conveyed thither; but rather as philosophers exult to see a prospect of future civilization, and of English spirit, taking place in a country left since the creation in the hands of brutal savages, and in a state of nature. What new combinations of commerce, of knowledge, or of society, may spring up in this singular situation it is impossible to foresee; but it is, no doubt, a matter of glory to carry British colonies into all parts of the globe, and to mingle the British name with the history of the most distant countries. Our older and wiser readers may perhaps smile, and speak of that entirely neglected substantive, called, UTILITY; which, if personified, may be defined to be a certain sharp-sighted personage, which always looks to her own house in the first place, and hates all gadding and extravagance; and particularly cannot endure to see the meat of the poor thrown to dogs. But to return.

The accounts from our settlement in the south-east part of this continent, called New South Wales, have been rather unpromising; but it must be reflected, that all colonies have at first met with many difficulties; and that very few have assumed an appearance of success till the third generation. The loss of the *Guardian*, and afterwards that of the *Sirius*, would have overwhelmed the infant settlement with the calamities of famine, had not a supply of provisions been afforded by the prudent humanity of the British government in the East Indies. A sensible letter from governor Philip

to lord Sydney, dated, Feb. 13, 1790, has lately appeared in the periodical prints, to which we must refer such of our readers as may have a curiosity to know the affairs of this colony.

CHINA, TARTARY.

From these countries there is no recent intelligence worth notice.

EAST INDIES.

The war in this country engrosses a great deal of the public attention. The rajah of Travancore, with whom we are in alliance, having purchased from the Dutch two forts, situated in a part of the country formerly tributary to Hyder Ally, Tippoo Saib pretends that these forts revert to him, and that the Dutch had no power to part with them, except by his express permission. He of consequence invaded the territories of the rajah; and we have been forced, by the faith of treaties, to arm in defence of our ally. The greatest spirit and exertion have been shewn by the British troops upon this occasion; the cruelties of Tippoo in the last war having exasperated our officers in particular against that usurping freebooter.

The military establishment of Tippoo is said to amount to 72,800 regulars, including 740 Europeans, under the command of French officers; besides troops in the frontier garrisons to the amount of 49,000. The remainder of his force consists of irregulars of various descriptions, and is computed at upwards of 33,000: so that Tippoo's whole force is reckoned 155,000; of which 73,000 are of a class much superior to any troops, which have ever been raised and disciplined by a native of India. His revenues are stated at five crores of rupees, or as many millions sterling, besides an immense treasure.

On the other hand, the British troops, whose number we cannot ascertain, are in the best condition, and conducted by a general of acknowledged courage and experience.

Upon the 11th of last June, the British southern army was at Cortallum, where a halt was made for the purpose of securing a sufficient supply of grain, before the actual invasion of Tippoo's territory. It was thought that Tippoo would make a stand at Combitore; but he retreated from thence, and the forts of Dindigul and Erroo fell into our hands.

By a resolution of the House of Commons the war is now national, and additional troops are to be sent to the East Indies.

We have as yet no decisive intelligence, but it is by many apprehended, that the ardor of general Medows may lead him to pass the Gauts, and perhaps have his retreat precluded.

But

But we augur better from his experience, and from the force of our allies assailing Tippoo on all sides.

P E R S I A.

No recent accounts.

T U R K E Y.

The ruinous condition to which this great empire has been brought, by her unhappy contests with Russia, is well known. This power, which was formerly an object of terror to all Christendom, now excites only pity or contempt. Crusades were formerly entered into to expel the Turks from Europe, and now crusades are formed to maintain them in it. Which will appear the more rational in the eyes of posterity, we cannot pretend to say.

The last grand event, in the present war between Turkey and Russia, was the sanguinary capture of Ismail, in which it appears that near 20,000 Turks fell. Since this the armies have been in winter-quarters, and the chief incidents which have brought the Turks to notice are the application to Venice, for the loan of some ships of war, to which, as is said, the republic consented, upon condition that the grand signior would, as successor of the califs, engage the states of Barbary to peace, and guarantee the Venetian flag: and the nomination of a new vizir Jussuf Pacha, instead of Hassan Pacha, who has been deposed and beheaded at Schiumla. The doctrine of predestination, to which the Turks are indebted for their plagues and famines, and many of their unsuccessful battles, renders them particularly attentive to the *fortune* of a general; and Jussuf Pacha will certainly be more fortunate than his predecessor, if he have more prudence.

The consequences of the fall of the Turkish empire, which, according to every appearance, would be the event of another Russian campaign or two, if no other powers interfered, have engaged universal attention; and the more especially, as two of the most distant powers of Europe are arming, in order to prevent this catastrophe.

On the one side it is asserted, that if the Turkish empire fell into the hands of Russia, it must be an event extremely beneficial to all Europe, and to the maritime powers in particular; to all Europe, in as much as there is no country which threatens the balance of power, and the universal liberties of Europe, so much as Russia; which, not contented with an empire of prodigious extent, and great accessions during the present century, has brought Poland and Sweden
into

into a political subserviency, and thus extends her sway to the limits of Germany, which affords but a weak and insecure barrier, as the state of the German soldiery, detailed by Mr. Putter, may evince. Hence it is of the utmost importance to divert the Russian arms and attention from Europe to Asia. Put Russia in possession of the whole Turkish empire, if you wish to ruin her; like all preceding empires, when too vast it will fall in pieces. But if you only desire to divert the attention of Russia from Europe to Asia, let her have a large part of the Turkish empire; which, in another campaign or two, would be the real case, and yet she might never possess the whole, and the intention is answered. Discontents of her Mahometan subjects, rebellions in distant provinces, constant attempts of the Ottomans to regain the lost realms, added to all the sudden and violent revolutions, to which Asiatic monarchies have been ever subject, would furnish an employment to Russia sufficient to engage her perpetual attention and embarrassment, and prevent her from ever conspiring against the liberties of Europe. To the maritime powers the Russian acquisitions in Turkey would open new sources of commerce; for many centuries would elapse before the barbarous Russians could enter into the spirit of manufacture and trade; but the ports now shut up by a fanatic superstition, by oppression, and by the frugal habits of the Turks, would be opened by the new possessors to every gale of European art and luxury. The ancient jealousy which subsisted among the nations is now passing away, and it is perfectly understood that the prosperity of any nation is increased by that of others.

On the other hand it is said, that if the limits of the Russian empire, already too extensive, were yet farther enlarged by the accession of Greece and Asia Minor, two of the finest countries in the world, it would be in vain to speak of preserving the balance of power, for that balance would be at once destroyed. Such an accession of wealth, and of subjects, would bear down every barrier before it. The regular force and exertion of this great empire would overwhelm the superior powers; and its wealth would, by corrupting and dividing, subdue the rest, and join in the triumph. The empire would indeed soon fall, but what a fall! the native strength of Europe would be previously corrupted and annihilated; and the Tartars, a new race of Huns, which compose the most warlike and dangerous part of the Russian soldiery, would seize the supreme power; and spreading over Europe, like locusts, would destroy every art and science, and restore the ages of barbarism. And a more immediate danger to the maritime powers,

powers, of which Britain is the chief, would arise from the innumerable excellent ports, which would, with the Turkish empire, fall into the possession of Russia; whose subjects are indeed barbarous, but whose universal toleration would soon fill her new and happy regions with crouds of industrious and ingenious settlers, eager to escape from the heavy taxations of old governments, from religious intolerance, and from rude climates. That the exorbitant power of Russia would enable her to exceed the ambition of being a fair rival in commerce, by prescribing terms to every commercial state.

Such might be the arguments upon either side of this important question. But it seems clear, that the Ottoman crescent is sinking into the ocean of Russia; and that the event may be delayed, but cannot be finally prevented, except by extraordinary means. If we suppose, for the sake of a political *reverie*, that as there were crusades some centuries ago, for no end in sound politics, a new one should take place, for a great political purpose, no less than to ensure the independence of Europe, we might easily suggest the arrangement. Let the chief European powers join in overturning and dividing the Ottoman empire. Suppose that Russia were to have all north of the Danube; the German emperor all north of the Adriatic, Servia, Bulgaria, Macedonia, and Romania; Britain to have Greece and the isles, so suited to her naval power; France the polished and gay regions of Asia Minor. Spain would find ample sources for her natural devotion in Syria and the Holy Land; the Dutch, for patient industry and trade in the low countries of Egypt. One campaign would apparently suffice to adjust the whole. And thus not only the balance of power would be preserved, and new sources of cultivation and commerce opened to all nations, but the glorious idea of some benevolent philosophers, that of a perpetual peace in Europe, and general commonwealth formed among its nations, might be brought nearer to our grasp, by the necessity of a league and guarantee to effect, and to preserve, the new possessions against the various powers of Asia and Africa. But we must return, for this important object has rather forced us to exceed our proposed limits.

A F R I C A.

It is reported that the powers of Barbary have made peace with all their opponents, and that the dey of Algiers, beys of Tunis and Tripoli, and other petty sovereigns, are making great exertions in order to assist the Turks.

RUSSIA.

RUSSIA.

The Russian armies, after acting some time on the defensive, at last opened and closed a most successful campaign. The capture of Ismail was the last important action; eight different times were the Muscovites repulsed, with the slaughter of many of their bravest soldiers. At the ninth, general Suwarrow put himself at their head, and snatching a standard out of an officer's hand, he ran directly towards the town, passed the trenches, and clambering up the wall, planted it himself on the rampart. "There," cried he, "my fellow soldiers, behold there your standard in the power of the enemy, unless you will preserve it; but I know you are brave, and will not suffer it to remain in their hands." This speech had the desired effect. They followed him by multitudes, and a most dreadful carnage ensued, and continued for three days. About two hundred and twenty young ladies belonging to some bashaws fell into the hands of the Cossacs, while endeavouring to escape on the opposite side of the town.

The empress has approved a new plan concerning the marines, and has appointed the prince de Nassau admiral and chief commander of this department. The object of this plan is to keep up a fleet of galleys, xebecs, and gun-boats; the prince is to have under him two vice-admirals and four *chefs d'escadre*, or commodores. The light squadron now ready consists of 12 large frigates, 30 galleys, 30 xebecs, 300 gun-boats, and other boats of a smaller size; 24,000 sailors and soldiers are to be collected for this service only.

Orders have besides been given to get the grand fleet ready for sea as soon as possible; it is to consist of 36 ships of the line, mounting from 64 to 100 guns each, with a proportional number of frigates.

Prince Potemkin is gone to Peterburg, where he may, perhaps, soon assume the purple, for he is too powerful for a subject; and a man of sense and spirit as he is, and adored by the soldiery, must have great virtue, if he do not repeat the scene of the Prætorian bands in the Roman empire. If the war continues, it is supposed that Silistria will be the next object of attack.

The empress, finding it difficult or impracticable to raise a loan in Holland, has now transferred her offers to Venice. Her ships in the Baltic, it is said, are not above two thirds manned. But the Russian sailors and soldiers are mostly peasants, who, by a native ingenuity, quickly learn any profession; and by a mechanical courage, or obstinacy, never yield to either foes or difficulties. They have all their portions of land, and have a character to maintain among their neighbours,

hours, and are not the mere vagabonds of a country. Hence a great source of the Russian success in war. Officers of experience form the chief want in Russia.

Though the congress at Sistovia has sitten for several months, we cannot learn that any progress has been made, or that it has occasioned any alteration in the Russian measures. But the conduct of Britain and Prussia have inclined the empress to moderation. She has, however, encreased her forces in Livonia against Prussia, and is strengthening the fortifications of Riga against any attempt by sea.

P O L A N D.

The affairs of this country are in an embarrassed situation; the contests between Russian and Prussian politics occasion great fluctuations in the diet. It is certainly much to be wished that this fine country, and its fifteen millions of slaves, were delivered from those worst of evils, an elective monarchy and an hereditary aristocracy; only reverse these terms, and the nation is completely free.

The Russian party, which has long borne absolute sway in Poland, proposes to continue the present inefficient and miserable government, as being singularly adapted to its interested views; and, in case of the demise of the present monarch, to raise his nephew prince Poniatowski to the throne. The king of Prussia wishes to deliver Poland from this disgraceful yoke, and proposes that the elector of Saxony shall be chosen, and his posterity enjoy the crown by hereditary succession.

If one object of Britain, in her present armaments, be to reinforce the Prussian influence in Poland, and to contribute to deliver that fine kingdom, and its numerous inhabitants, from the worst of all possible governments, and at the same time erect her a powerful barrier against the Russians, as indeed the special mention made by the minister of a new source of commerce opening with Poland seems to evince, we must applaud the endeavour as both philanthropic and profoundly political.

The decision of the republic, relative to the succession to the Polish throne, meets with fresh difficulties daily; at least nothing positive is yet resolved on, as to the conditions to which the successor must accede. Many powerful members of the republic and whole provinces are against an hereditary succession.

A treaty has lately taken place between Poland and the Porte: and the English ambassador, by a memorial of the 28th of January last, has formally offered a commercial and political connection.

connection with this country. He assures them, at the same time that definitive proposals are ready to be made, as soon as Poland shall shew a reciprocal inclination to adopt a system, in which their mutual ally the king of Prussia, as in all justice he ought, shall be especially included.

S W E D E N.

The king of Sweden has closed, by a peace with Russia, his gallant actions against that power, which at first dazzled the political hemisphere, like the coruscations of an aurora borealis. Gustavus III. has no common name to support; what country has not heard of Gustavus Vasa and Gustavus Adolphus? We hope that in this peace he has at least provided against those surreptitious invasions of Russia, which have repeatedly left him the regal name without the power, by bribing and establishing a party in his dominions almost too powerful for controul. The political career which Russia follows in Poland she wishes to pursue in Sweden, by supporting the nobles against the king, and thus influencing at ease an anarchical government.

It is said that Sweden was induced by Britain and Prussia to her active exertions against Russia, and then abandoned to her fate; and in this case her conduct is not to be wondered at. This cause is indeed alledged in the Swedish rescript to the Porte, of the 27th Sept. 1790, and it is added that the king was induced to peace by the entire loss of his naval force, only fourteen sail of the line being left, by the enormous expence of the war, and by the cries and supplications of his people, conjuring him to avert the total ruin of the nation.

It has since been reported that Sweden, not content with making peace with Russia, has entered into an alliance with that empire, that the Swedish king has given orders to form magazines for 28,000 men, in the southern provinces of the kingdom; and that six ships of the line were ordered to be ready for sea by the 16th of May, and marching orders were issued to all the regiments for the 15th of that month.

But, from the best intelligence which we can procure from well-informed natives, both Sweden and Denmark will remain neutral.

D E N M A R K.

This country is in strict alliance with Russia, from gratitude for the affair of Holstein, and from other causes too numerous to be here explained. The enmity between Denmark and Sweden

Sweden is deeply rooted, and though nothing could be more for their mutual advantage, it is improbable that they can confederate sincerely.

According to the best information which we can procure, Denmark has at present an army of 75,000 men; and her fleet consists of 36 ships of the line, and 12 frigates, besides many flat-bottomed galleys. The invention of the latter, now so much used in the Baltic, belongs to this power. They were first used in Norway, about sixty years ago; each galley has generally 50 sailors and 100 soldiers.

The wise politics of Denmark are at present obstinately bent upon neutrality and peace.

We must now, for a moment, visit the southern but distant regions of Europe.

ITALY.

The treaty between Venice and the Porte, for some ships of war to be furnished by the former, seems not yet determined. The republic of Genoa has demanded of the German emperor the investiture of the fiefs of the republic; and his mediation to settle the differences which subsist between the republic and the king of Sardinia, relative to the limits of their respective territories.

SPAIN.

The most momentous event of this country, which falls within our notice, is the convention with Britain; but this we reserve till we come to our own national affairs*. The count de Florida Blanca is an enlightened minister, and promotes the progress of knowledge in this unhappy country, which is subject to the worst of all tyrannies, that of its inquisition and universities. It's Academy of Sciences makes but a slow voyage with the cargo of literature, among these horrible whirlpools. A revolution in Spain would be a matter of more exultation to the philosopher than that of France, for it's miseries are far greater. Liberty, science, and true religion, were confined in France, but in Spain they are trampled under by the brutal feet of monks and bigots.

The government continues to shew it's uneasiness at the French revolution, and watches narrowly those who talk in favour of its principles. The circulation of all public papers

* It is much suspected that this convention may engage Spain, in revenge, to ally herself with Russia, and that France may actively join against our new dictatorship.

and political pamphlets from France, is still severely prohibited.

The bishop of Orence in Galicia has written a letter to the king, which causes some alarm, a copy of it having got abroad. He speaks highly in it of the calamities of the people, and severely of the conduct of ministers, laying heavy taxes which the poor cannot pay. He adds, "your majesty, the royal family, the noblesse of the court, the magistrates, the warriors, and the inhabitants of the towns, all live by the sweat of the daily labourers; and of what good is all charity, if rigour smother it? I therefore, firmly hope, that your majesty will adopt such measures as may be proper to remedy these many evils; and that under your reign may be said, what was applied to the felicity of Trajan's government—O happy time when one may think what one will, and speak what one thinks!"

P R U S S I A.

The advantages of a large well-formed army, and a treasury to pay it, enable this power to dictate to its neighbours; but treasures and armies soon moulder away, and one unsuccessful war would reduce Prussia to her ancient level. It is probable that the revenge of Russia may soon induce her to single out this kingdom for a theatre of destruction; and it is well known that the late Prussian monarch found the Russians to be the most dreadful of foes.

The connection between the houses of Bourbon and Austria and the Russian empire rendered an alliance between us and Prussia necessary, which is further cemented by the interests of the electorate of Hanover. It is now sufficiently understood that the armed neutrality, which gave us such disgust, was projected by the late king of Prussia, and at his instigation embraced by the Russian empress; but revenge must give way to more political considerations.

The formal embassy from the Ottoman Porte, and the war-like preparations of Prussia, have had their effect upon the Russian politics; and the extreme moderation of the empress, who only demands to retain two forts, Akerman and Oczakow, seems to promise that peace may be the immediate issue.

G E R M A N Y.

The new emperor has engaged the public praise by repeated instances of moderation and solid principles. His former management of his Italian sovereignty, which was prudent and beneficent, shewed that he aspired to truer reputation than could be acquired by the glossy variability of character to be found in the deceased emperor.

At the request of the states of Goritia and Gradisca, the former government of these places has been re-instituted. Universal toleration prevails in the Imperial dominions, in which it has been lately ordered that Jews, after having acquired the necessary knowledge, may be created doctors of the civil law, and at the same time advocates; and in the latter quality plead the cause both of Jews and Christians. In consequence of this ordinance, Raphael Joel, a Jew, has been created doctor of civil law, at the university of Prague, after having given satisfactory proofs of his abilities *. One of the bishops of Hungary, having refused his licence to a catholic subject to marry a protestant woman, the emperor dismissed him from his see; but pardoned him afterwards upon concession, and desired the bishop to exhort his brethren to comply with the Imperial ordinances, else no favour should be shewn.

The Turks have agreed to the navigation of the Austrian vessels on the Danube and Black Sea, and also to guarantee the Imperial flag, if attacked or insulted by the pirates of Barbary.

The city of Liege, which has been remarkable in history, ever since the fourteenth century, for its constant tumults, insurrections, and rebellions, has been reduced to submission by the Austrian troops, sent to enforce the decree of the Imperial chamber. The king of Prussia in some degree favoured the malcontents, but did not chuse to quarrel with the Germanic body upon this occasion. There must be some radical error in the constitution of this unhappy city, for other German cities and countries are under the same heterogeneous sovereignty of a prince bishop, without being subject to such unceasing broils.

AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

The counter-revolution in this country has only excited surprize in those who did not attend to the foundation upon which the revolution stood. It was the mere usurpation of an aristocracy, supported by a deluded populace, under the bigoted dominion of the priests and monks; for of all countries in the world the Austrian Netherlands are the most fanatic, if we only except Spain. A revolution founded on fanaticism can no more stand than an edifice built on a mire, as the republic of England in the last century sufficiently

* In some accounts it has been said, that this Jew was admitted to the degree of *Doctor of Laws*, as if a Jew being a doctor of *Canon Law* were not a contradiction in terms. LL. D. *Legum Doctor*, *Utriusque Juris Doctor* imply Doctor of Civil and Canon Law.

evinced. Universal toleration, and universal privileges, are the grand foundations of a steady revolution; but to these bigotry and aristocracy are as night compared to day. The Flemish aristocracy had not even common prudence, but trampled upon their fellow-subjects, whose support alone could uphold them; and when they found that they had lost their affections, they sold them to their ancient master: a greater monument of folly and baseness has hardly disgraced human history. Bayle has started a problem whether atheism or superstition be more dangerous to society; and in confirmation of his judgment against the latter, let the French and Flemish revolutions be compared.

The Austrian Netherlands, having again submitted to the emperor in last November; their royal highnesses the arch-duchess Maria Christina, and the duke of Teschen, have been appointed to the government general; of which the count de Metternich will be minister plenipotentiary. The court of Vienna seems to incline to put the affairs of Brabant upon the footing they were in the reign of Maria Theresa, without suffering the introduction of any old privileges.

UNITED NETHERLANDS.

The stadtholder, by the assistance of England and Prussia, has triumphed over the aristocracy of this country, by some idly supposed to be a democracy. The latter party is now dormant, till France shall be able to lend them more effectual assistance.

By the laudable politics of the British minister, this country is now in strict alliance with Britain; and enters, with the greatest readiness, into all our transactions with other nations.

FRANCE.

The present state of affairs in France is a delicate subject, but in treating it we hope to observe that extreme moderation and impartiality which we have proposed to ourselves as our chief aim. As on the one hand, we shall be slow in assuming the privilege of an eloquent partisan of this country, that of reviling a government, which may probably be for ever that of France, and thus sowing the sanguinary seeds of enmity among nations, a conduct from which our reason and our feelings alike recoil:

*Non licet nobis esse tam disertis,
Qui musas colimus severiores.*

So we shall as little trust the eloquence of Mirabeau, (now no more) upon the other side; for we have never, since the days

days of Demosthenes, seen eloquence and reason united together; but, on the contrary, suspect that most eloquence labours under the eternal anathema of Sallust, SATIS ELOQUENTIÆ, SAPIENTIÆ PARUM.

The tumults and suspicion of a counter-revolution, which arose at Lyons, have been effectually quelled. The clergy have been forced to take the national oath, and those who refused have been deposed, and others elected.

The French navy consists of 74 ships of the line, exclusive of 10 now building: and 21 are completely armed and manned, and ready for sea.

In the beginning of last February the jury laws were perfected; and in no country of Europe is personal liberty more firmly established than in France at the present moment. The national chief court of justice will soon be modified.

The state of the French finances we cannot sufficiently explain, for the finance of any country, though it belongs to plain arithmetic, a science of the most positive mathematical truth, is yet so enveloped in political chicane and *charlatanerie*, that nothing can be more uncertain. If we credit M. de Calonne, the French finances are ruined, and the National Assembly has swelled the *deficit* past all redemption. If we credit the accounts published by those who favour the new government, France, instead of paying six hundred and five millions to government, and the clergy, will pay to herself, and for herself, five hundred and twenty millions, without any deficiency; and it is asserted that there is a superflux of about three millions sterling, to be applied in payment of their national debt. What are we to believe?

The prince of Condé being refused a residence at Louisaubourg, by the duke of Wurtemberg, proceeded to Brunswick. The viscount de Mirabeau was employed in raising recruits in Switzerland, particularly in the canton of Berne; but the king of Sardinia and the emperor seem to have prudently declined taking any concern in the projected counter-revolution.

Many tumults arise at Paris, and in other parts of the kingdom, as may be expected in the first effervescence of national freedom; and before the new laws have assumed their calm and even tenor.

The French assessment of land tax, according to the decree proposed in the National Assembly, will amount to near twelve millions sterling per annum, a sum equal to six times that paid in this country. The late decree of the Assembly, by which the right of primogeniture is destroyed, and all the children are to share alike, is remarkable, and must contribute to a more equal partition of property.

M. Brandes, private secretary to the chancery of Hanover, has reinforced Mr. Burke and M. de Calonne in their attacks upon the French revolution; but what engages more attention is the critical season at which the National Assembly has arrived. Our newspapers and M. de Calonne have long threatened a counter-revolution, and it must be now or never. The National Assembly, or rather the states general, met in May, 1789, and the two years fixed for the term of their sitting are on the point of expiration; but as they decreed to sit till the constitution was settled, the question is whether they will dissolve this season. There seem to be actually some preparations for a counter-revolution, and the time of the Assembly's dissolution will probably be chosen for that attempt. But we must infer from the universal spirit of the nation that it will prove fruitless; and if no dissension arise among the patriots, they have nothing to fear.

A benevolent author has lately published in France a series of essays "On Beggary," from which it appears that one fifth part of the French nation is in that deplorable condition. He traces its origin and causes, which in most cases have been found to proceed from the diseases and accidents, to which the industrious poor are liable; and asserts that most beggars may truly say, "Give alms to one reduced to beggary by industry." He recommends the forming of new colonies from this class, and the scheme appears to us as beneficent as it is new and bold. In this land of liberty, would there be more constraint upon the freedom of the subject, in transporting beggars to form colonies in countries, where little or no industry would suffice to procure the necessaries of life, than in transporting them violently from parish to parish, and imprisoning them for life in poor-houses? But we should be glad to see some of our own writers enter upon this new field of benevolence, a field far wider and more important than that cultivated by the immortal Howard.

BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

In treating the transactions of our own country, we intend first to give a slight sketch of national affairs, and then of parliamentary proceedings. The first article we shall commence at the Spanish convention, signed on the 28th of October last; and the second at the opening of the new parliament, being the seventeenth of Great Britain, which was on the 25th of November; epochs sufficiently illustrious.

The

NATIONAL AFFAIRS.

The causes of our dispute with Spain are sufficiently known, and need not be here explained. The extreme jealousy of that kingdom, concerning her American possessions, has repeatedly engaged her in unjust quarrels with this country; and even the present low ebb of her power has not taught her a more prudent conduct in this respect. It is certain that our southern whale-fishery, and it is probable that our settlement in New Holland, conspired with the Nootka fur-trade to awaken the Spanish delicacy, concerning even a shew of interference with those parts of America, to which they pretend an exclusive claim.

By the convention it is agreed that the buildings and tracts of land of which we were dispossessed shall be restored: that compensation for losses shall be made; that we shall not be molested in our fisheries in the Pacific Ocean or South Seas, provided we keep at the distance of ten sea leagues from Spanish settlements: that free access and trade shall pass between any settlements of the two powers, established, or to be established since April 1789; but no settlement to be made to the south of the parts occupied by Spain: and that no officers upon either part shall permit themselves to commit any act of violence, upon pretences of complaint, or infraction, but shall report the affair to their respective courts.

Great difference of opinion has, as usual, taken place upon this subject. Some assert that the convention, far from being a ground of lasting peace, can only prove an additional source of wars, from its not defining the northern boundary of the Spanish possessions, from its ambiguity in other respects, and from its blending together, instead of keeping distinct, the people of two nations, inimical in their manners and religion, and accustomed to long jealousy and enmity: and that its concessions are more apparent than real; but if real, are far from being worth the four millions sterling which they cost; a sum which no possible advantages to be derived from the convention can ever compensate.

On the other side it is said, that this convention grants as much as could be expected or required in such a case, that it at least unlocked the outer gate of the treasures of the Spanish main, that it was the first instance of Spain's granting so much to any power, and its value might be estimated by her reluctance and regret upon the occasion; that not to speak of the Nootka fur-trade, which our settlements in the East Indies enable us to carry on with ease and great and increasing profit, the security of the Southern whale fishery, so much superior in the quality of oil, and in the profits to the Northern, was a most important object, both to our commerce

and navy, and that in estimating the national expence incurred, we are not to speak as of a bargain and sale, but to reflect that the nation had been insulted, and that such are human affairs that a long war might have followed upon this ground only, and for a far greater expence have yielded no return at all.

To a philosopher, perhaps, a more risible object can hardly occur than to see two great nations, and both of them exhausted by long wars, and enormous debts and taxes, quarrelling and going to war for an acre of ice in Nootka Sound. But such is the shocking routine of modern governments, which must always follow one path, though it lead to certain perdition, that two ministers respectable for virtue and talents, the count de Florida Blanca and Mr. Pitt, seemed never to reflect that half the expence of their armaments expended in improvements at home would have yielded more solid profit in half a century than all those distant possessions which engage the childish ambition of nations. We revere the commercial interest of our country, but cannot bear to see the landed so neglected, and far less to see the necks of the poor bend under additional taxes to support every mercantile scheme. These things must soon be altered, else they will alter themselves.

Hardly had we escaped from a Spanish war before we fell into an Indian one, and are now preparing for a squabble with Russia. It is perhaps necessary, after the loss of America, which many nations in Europe fondly thought the final downfall of our power, to convince them effectually of the contrary, and that we are still the same great and prosperous nation; but after sacrificing so much to glory, it is to be hoped that we shall find time in future for plain utility*.

A more pleasing subject occurs in the liquidation of the national debt, the progress of which, in the end of January last, was thus computed:

3 per cent. Consols.	-	-	£. 2,753,800
3 per cent. Reduced	-	-	1,878,450
Old South Sea	-	-	1,091,100
New South Sea	-	-	807,000
South Sea, 1757,	-	-	242,000
			<hr/>
			6,772,350

In October last 6,365/. Exchequer Annuities fell in,

* The proposed society for the improvement of British wool deserves mention, but it has originated upon mistaken ideas entertained in Scotland, concerning the old English wool, which never was remarkable for fineness, but only for quantity, as sufficiently shewn in some intelligent letters upon this subject, published in Woodfall's Diary about four months ago.

and 48,515*l.* more, granted in 1692 for ninety-nine years, will soon follow. These sums, with the interest of the capital redeemed, are regularly added to the annual million.

A great revolution seems of late to have taken place in the state of politics in this country. A third party has arisen, and is gradually though silently encreasing, which pretends to regard both ancient and modern whigs and Tories as mere aristocratic divisions; who, under the stale pretext of public good have only sought to gratify their own avarice and ambition, while the interests of the nation at large have been neglected and despised. It is rumoured that the first decisive appearance of this party, which aspires to the name of the National, will take place in an invitation to all subjects, who pay a direct tax of 5*s.* a year, or upwards, and have no vote for members of parliament, to meet in their respective towns and counties, and appoint deputies to consider of the mode of redress. In England it is computed that out of five millions, about three hundred thousand vote; and in Scotland it is certain that out of a million and a half, there do not vote upwards of three thousand.

A new spirit of examination, of reform, of political liberty, and frugality, seems to have arisen in most countries; and we shall applaud those moderate governments which wisely yield somewhat to the public wish. When the tempest arises, it is safer to be a willow than an oak.

PARLIAMENTARY PROCEEDINGS.

We have rather exceeded our proposed limits, and must therefore content ourselves with a few brief hints upon this important subject.

One of the first objects which engaged the attention of parliament, was to raise supplies for the expence of our armament against Spain; and it seems agreed that the minister pursued the best plan, which could have been suggested in this delicate business.

The impeachment of Mr. Hastings opened a curious field of debate. The question was, whether it was not quashed by the dissolution of parliament, and the opinion of all the learned gentleman of the law was decidedly that it fell; but the constitution and common sense prevailed over the law, and this is but one of many instances in which the constitution and the laws of this country are at direct variance. To those who say that we have no constitution, because we have no formal writing so called, we must answer, that by the constitution we mean the customs and practice, the common law, so to speak, of government, and the analogy of its

general spirit applied to particular cases where no positive precedents occur.

Among the ways and means the minister had arranged the unclaimed dividends in the Bank. This occasioned some interested clamour, but the nation saw it in its proper light.

The support of the war in India opened a more plausible field of dispute, but the question was sufficiently decided by the positive faith of treaties between us and the rajah of Travancore; and if we wish to retain our Indian possessions, it is necessary to establish a firm and respectable character among the native powers. It is however to be hoped and expected, that this war will have a very short continuance.

The proposed new constitution of Canada, we have mentioned in our sketch of American affairs.

As to the present armament, and its intentions, we shall reserve our remarks till a future occasion.

Concerning Ireland we have nothing particular to state, except a laudable investigation which took place in the parliament of that country, concerning the immoderate use of spirituous liquors among the common people. In a government which pays any attention to the morals of its subjects, these pernicious liquors cannot be taxed too highly, and malt liquors should be rendered as cheap as possible. The common use of distilled beverage destroys the health, dries up the sources of population, and maddens the vulgar mind to the commission of every crime. Its consumption is indeed a considerable fund of revenue; but let us not be told that revenue is the only end of government, while there remains a spark of virtue among mankind.

I N D E X.

A.

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